AN EXAMINATION OF

THE PERCEIVED DIRECTION OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

A Dissertation

by

ANN HERGATT HUFFMAN

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A& M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

December 2004

Major Subject: Psychology

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ABSTRACT

An Examination of the Perceived Direction of Work-Family Conflict. (December 2004)

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The current trend in the work and family literature is to separate work-family conflict into two distinct dimensions: work interfering with family and family interfering with work. Research suggests that employees who have a high level of demands at work are more likely to experience work-to-family conflict, while employees who have a high level of personal demands are more likely to experience family-to-work conflict. Attributing the conflict to the domain with the higher demands oversimplifies a much more complex interactive process. I hypothesized that work-family conflict results from the two roles interacting and not from a singular direction or primary force and the perceived direction of the conflict is determined by a variety of other factors. The purpose of this study was to examine how role salience, social support, and societal expectations affect the perceived direction of work-family conflict. Data were collected from 100 police and fire station employees to examine what variables relate to the perceived direction of conflict as well as the primary source of conflict: work or family.

Results indicated that time demands play a critical role in the perceived direction and source of work-family conflict. Specifically, individuals who spent more time with their family reported the primary source of conflict was their family. Contrary to expectation, the relationship between time demands and the direction of work-family conflict was not moderated by role salience, social support, or societal expectations in the predicted directions. Also contrary to expectation, these variables did not moderate the relationship between time demands and the source of conflict. Results of the study suggest the importance of examining both the level and source of work-family conflict.

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INTRODUCTION

There is an abundance of literature on the intersection of work and family (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). The interest in work and family has been fueled by the changes in both the structure of work and demographics of the workforce (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). In the last 40 years, there have been many changes that have blurred the boundaries between work and family such as advanced technology, dual-career families, policies that allow workers more flexibility, and changing role expectations for both the employee and the organization.

With increased research on work and family issues, researchers continue to develop and refine related constructs. The construct work-family conflict is one of the most researched work-family variables (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). A recent supposition in work-family research literature is the importance of the directionality of the work-family conflict construct. Many researchers have stressed that the intersection of work and family should be examined bi-directionally, that is, work interfering with family (work-to-family) and family interfering with work (family-to-work; e.g., Adams, King, & King, 1996; Boyar, Maertz, & Mosley, 2003; Frone, Barnes, & Farrell, 1994; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). This suggestion has been supported by numerous studies that have empirically shown that work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict yield

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This dissertation follows the style and format of the *Journal of Applied Psychology.*

different consequences. Yet what is missing in most of these studies is under what conditions does the individual perceives the direction of the conflict the way they do.

The purpose of the current study is to examine what variables influence the perceived direction of work-family conflict. An integration of role theory and conservation of resources theory are used to explain these processes. Role theory (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964) helps explain how an individual perceives processes in both the home and work domain. Conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) is used to describe how different aspects of an individual's work and family life are differentially valued. Together the theories create a comprehensive framework that describes the processes underlying work-family conflict and when an individual attributes blame to either domain.

Role Theory

Multiple theories have been used to help explain the processes underlying work-family conflict and how work-family conflict relates to other variables (e.g., spillover, role, compensation, segmentation, conservation of resources theory; Edwards & Rothbard, 2001). Role theory is especially relevant because it takes into consideration the individual's perception while acknowledging that their view is affected by their own as well as others' role expectations. This is especially important in work and family research where attitudes and behaviors are clearly impacted by societal expectations. The comprehensive nature of role theory makes it a valuable framework to use when studying work and family.

Role theory proposes that organizations (e.g., work or family) may be viewed as a role system where the relationships between people are maintained by expectations that have been developed by roles (Kahn et al., 1964). The role process model is based on the assumption that there is an interaction between the role performer (focal person) and another person who has expectations concerning the role (role sender). The expectations of the role are sent from the role sender to the focal person. The focal person "receives" the role and then behaves in some manner in response to the role sender. The role sender then "receives" that behavior which affects the role sender's belief system. The role sender's perception of the focal person's behavior is then compared to some standard set by the role sender. This comparison affects future expectations of the role sender on future behaviors. For example, in the case of an employee-employer relationship, the role sender (employer) has expectations that his or her employees will work late. When the employee does stay late the employer displays behaviors such as allowing special privileges to the focal person (employee), which will then affect later behaviors. Finally, the role expectations are the basis for future sent roles as the process progresses in a continuous cycle. Katz and Kahn (1978) describe roles as the "building block of social systems" (p. 219). Roles are helpful for individuals and organizations as they clarify what behaviors are expected. When expectations between roles differ, problems at work or at home may surface.

Work-Family Conflict

According to role theory, role conflict is defined as, "simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more

difficult compliance with the other" (Kahn et al., 1964, p. 19). In the context of the interface between work and family, the two competing demands are generated from the work and family domains. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defined work-family conflict as, "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (p. 77).

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) reported that work-family conflict can be conceptualized and measured as (a) time-based, (b) strain-based, and (c) behavior-based. Work-family conflict based on time occurs when responsibilities in one domain are difficult to fulfill because of the time spent in the other domain. For example, when a traditional eight-to-five employee works beyond five or works on the weekend and this interferes with his/her ability to get things done at home. Time is therefore disproportionately spent on work-related matters compared to time spent with family. Strain-based work-family conflict occurs when the psychological demands in one domain interfere with normal responsibilities and relationships in the other domain. For example, a man may have marital problems at home and may project negative feelings and actions toward his coworkers based on accumulated family-related stress. Co-workers may experience the brunt of emotional turmoil generated by events at home. Behavior-based work-family conflict occurs when behavior that is more appropriate or effective in one domain spills into the other domain. This is likely to occur when one works in an environment where there are strict policies and procedures concerning how employees should behave like a very rigid office environment where communication and behavior are dictated by policies and procedures. Behavior-based conflict occurs when

the employee continues to display the same unyielding communication patterns in the home with his/her children and family members.

In order to clarify the primary source of conflict in this paper, the term "work-family conflict" is used to refer to conflict between the two domains when the direction is not clear. "Work-to-family conflict" is used to describe conflict that is perceived to originate in the work domain and "family-to-work conflict" is used to describe conflict that is perceived to originate in the family domain. The differentiation between the source of conflict is necessary to highlight the primary domain to which conflict is allocated.

Direction of Work-Family Conflict

Work and family were once described as "myths of the separate worlds" in which the two domains were independent of each other (Kanter, 1977). This conceptualization changed with the introduction of the concept "asymmetrical permeable" boundaries between the work and family domains (Pleck, 1977). Pleck suggested that the stressors and demands that originate in one domain intrude upon the other at a different level of intensity. For example, stress from a job may greatly interfere with an employee's family life but the family stressors may have only minimal affect on/at work. Most of the recent work-family models are based on Pleck's concept of asymmetrical permeability.

Many of the early work-family researchers acknowledged that stressors could originate in either the home or the work domain, yet their depictions of work-family conflict did not (e.g., Bedeian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988; Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986; Hesketh & Shouksmith, 1986; Kopelman et al., 1983;

Paradine, Higgins, Szeglin, Beres, Kravitz, & Fotis, 1981; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). In fact, it was not until the mid-eighties that directionality of the conflict was first introduced (e.g., Bedeian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman; 1986).

Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992) developed one of the most comprehensive and well-established work-family conflict models. Although the basic framework was an extension of previous work (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991; Bedeian et al., 1988; Burke, 1988; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986; Kopelman et al., 1983; Rice, Frone, & McFarlin, 1992), the key contribution of the Frone et al. model was the distinction between work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. According to Frone et al. (1992), the work-family interface is bidirectional, that is, work can interfere with family and family can interfere with work. The bidirectional nature of the work-family interface is important because the consequences of the conflict are dependent on where the conflict originates. This interface between the two domains can be reciprocal in nature. For example, an employee may work long hours which interfere with his or her responsibilities at home. In turn, the spouse may put unrealistic pressure on the employee to become more involved in tasks at home, and this makes the employee feel stressed and frustrated at home which he or she later acts upon at work. Although the source of conflict originated at work (work-to-family conflict), the stress becomes a circular process and evolves into family-to-work conflict.

One of the first papers that distinguished work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict was a study that examined the work-family interface using both the rational view and gender role theory (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991). Gutek and her colleagues provided an example of work-to-family conflict as when "long hours in paid work prevent the performance of duties at home." They described an example of family-to-work conflict as when "a child's illness prevents attendance at work" (p. 560). These examples of role conflict attribute the direction of conflict only to the amount of time disproportionately spent in one domain. Results of their study showed that (1) work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict are distinct factors; (2) employees report much higher levels of work-to-family conflict than family-to-work conflict; and (3) the relationship between time in domain and conflict is moderate. With the third finding, they suggested that other factors besides time (e.g., amount of responsibility) may contribute to the perceived direction of work-family conflict.

Research by Frone et al. (1992) supported Gutek et al.'s (1991) findings. Specifically, Frone et al. (1992) found that work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict were two separate factors and that there was a higher prevalence for employees to experience work-to-family conflict than family-to-work conflict. It should be noted that both Gutek et al. and Frone et al. used conflict scales that only tapped into the time demand aspect of role conflict.

O'Driscoll, Illgen, and Hildreth, (1992) developed a role conflict scale that is bi-directional (job to off-job and off-job to job) with scale items tapping both time and strain demands. They suggested that the more time an individual spends in the work

domain the more likely he or she will experience job/off-job conflict. Conversely, when an individual spends more time in off-job activities, he/she will also experience less role interference. Their findings supported Frone's et al.'s (1992) contention that job to off-job conflict and off-job to job conflict are different constructs and that both should be measured when examining the work and family interface.

Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk, and Beutell (1996) used a sample of entrepreneurs to test a model that measured work and family variables in relation to career success. Their model assumed that work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict were two independent constructs with independent antecedents. That is, time commitment to work caused work-to-family conflict and time commitment to family caused family-to-work conflict. They tested this model with three outcome variables: career satisfaction, family satisfaction, and perceived life stress. Key findings in their study were: (1) psychological involvement in work and family have a direct effect on work-to family conflict and family-to-work conflict; (2) parental demands are related to time commitment to family which are related to decreased work-to-family conflict and have no relationship to family-to-work conflict; (3) both types of conflict mediate the relationships between time commitment and career success and time commitment and life stress; and (4) work-to-family conflict is related to life stress and family-to-work conflict is related to decreased career satisfaction. Overall, they found support for their model. People who perceive excessive demands in their work domain experienced higher levels of life stress, whereas excessive family demands related to lower levels of

career satisfaction. The directionality of the perceived stressor contributed to perceptions of various outcomes.

In 1997, Frone, Yardley, and Markel revised Frone et al.'s (1992) earlier model. Similar to the original model, they predicted that the relationship between work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict was reciprocal, but unlike their original model they suggested that the relationship between these constructs would be more distal in nature. Specifically, they predicted that work-to-family conflict would be related to family-to-work conflict through increased parental overload and increased family distress. Conversely, family-to-work conflict would be related to work-to-family conflict through work overload and increased work distress. Their logic for this distal model was that work-to-family conflict leads to perceptions of high parental overload and family distress, because the work demands reduces time and energy needed for family responsibilities. Similarly, family-to-work conflict leads to perceptions of work overload and work distress because the family demands reduces time and energy needed for work responsibilities. Their results supported their prediction that work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict have an indirect reciprocal relationship.

In addition to the previous studies mentioned above, the bidirectional phenomenon of work-family conflict has been tested in multiple studies (e.g., Adams et al., 1996; Boyar et al., 2003; Frone et al., 1994; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Netemeyer et al., 1996). Research supports the contention that work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict are related to different outcomes (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Frone et al., 1992; Frone et al., 1994;

Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1994; O'Driscoll et al., 1992). Specifically, work-to-family conflict is related to family dissatisfaction (e.g., Kopelman et al., 1983), life satisfaction (e.g., Adams et al., 1996) marital satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1987), family performance (e.g., Frone et al., 1997), job turnover intentions (e.g., Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Collins, 2001) and actual job turnover (e.g., Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999). On the other hand, family-to-work conflict is related to job dissatisfaction, work-related absenteeism and tardiness, and poor work-related role performance (Frone, Yardley, & Market, 1997; Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999). Yet the processes underlying the attribution of the conflict to a particular domain has not been well studied.

Determining the Direction of Work-Family Conflict

Clearly there is evidence that two dimensions of work-family conflict (work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict) exist. What is not known is why individuals perceive the direction of their conflict the way they do. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) posited that the source of the conflict is evident only after the event has occurred. For example, a manager may need to work late into the night to finish a project which results in missing dinner at home. Since the additional work interfered with family time, work would be perceived as interfering with family. I believe that the process of determining the source of the conflict is more complex than a simple time or even strain-based determinate.

Unfortunately, most studies do not examine the conditions with which individuals perceive work or family as the primary source of their conflict. One exception can be found in a conceptual paper in which Boyar, Maertz, Pearson, and

Keough (2003) identified the processes used in attributing blame for work-family conflict to either work interfering with family or family interfering with work. In their paper, Boyar and colleagues use sense-making research to describe how an individual assigns blame to the source of conflict. They posited that there are four steps that an employee goes through in the role conflict process. First, the individual experiences an event that increases either the work or family demands. The event can be an interpersonal interaction, an intrapersonal realization, or an exterior phenomenon (Boyar et al., 2003). An interpersonal interaction occurs when an individual has some type of interaction with another individual. In the case of work and family, the interactions may be a supervisor or co-worker at work or a child or spouse at home. This interaction may then lead to demands in either the work or home domain. An intrapersonal realization occurs when an individual remembers a task that will require some type of demand. For example, a parent may remember that he/she needs to take his or her child to the doctor at a time that he/she had scheduled a meeting. An exterior phenomenon is a chance event such as a car accident that occurs and adds to the demands of the individual's responsibilities.

Second, Boyar et al. (2003) postulate that the event will lead to a feeling of incongruity between the demand and their current state. This in turn will lead to a state of negative affect which promotes conflicted feelings. Finally, in an attempt to find balance, the individual will try to make sense of the feelings. It is at this point that the individual will evaluate all of the factors that may be related to the conflict and assign blame to either the family or work domain.

Although Boyar et al. have written the most comprehensive conceptual article on how people attribute conflict, the subject has been broached before. For example, Greenhaus (1988) referred back to Kahn et al.'s (1964) proposition that role conflict comes from the intensity of the forces in the home and work domain. Greenhaus stated that these forces are generated or affected by societal, interpersonal, and personal characteristics of the individual. He highlighted the importance of understanding these characteristics so we can determine the strength of the different role pressures.

I suggest that these characteristics contribute to the four factors that I propose will affect an individual's perception of directionality. Specifically, the following factors are part of the attribution process for individuals perceiving the source of their work-family conflict: (a) the actual demands or responsibilities in the work and family domain (personal factors); (b) life role salience of each domain's role (personal and/or societal); (c) work and family support (interpersonal and/or personal); and (d) role expectations (societal). The value placed on these factors are based not only on how one perceives their own role but also how these factors affect their resources that help them succeed in the work and family domain.

Conservation of Resources Theory

The conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) provides a basis for explaining relationships between work and family characteristics and work-family conflict (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). According to the conservation of resources theory, "people strive to retain, protect, and build resources and that what is threatening to them is the potential or actual loss of these valued resources" (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 1).

Resources include conditions such as marital status, job tenure, personal characteristics, and energies (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). In the case of work-family conflict, employee resources may be replenished or depleted depending on certain work and family characteristics. For example, employees with more tenure have more knowledge and experience dealing with work stressors which may make them less likely to experience work-family conflict. Grandey and Cropanzano reported support for conservation of resources theory in their model of work-family conflict and strain.

One element in the description of conservation of resources theory that is critical is the reference to "valued" resources. One employee may assign more value to "family game night" while another employee may assign more value to completing a work project on time. Determining how much an individual values a resource can be attributed to different factors. In this paper, I argue that work/family identity, work/family support, and role expectations all impact an individual's value system. It is the employee's work and family demands and his/her value structure that helps determine the perceived direction or primary source of the conflict.

Work and Family Demands

Time demands, such as long hours, and family demands, such as number of children, have traditionally been the reported "source" of conflict between the work and home. Netemeyer et al. (1996) suggested that conflict originates in the domain in which an individual has responsibilities, requirements, expectations, duties, and commitments. *Work* is interfering with family when an employee works long hours and conversely

family is interfering with work when the employee takes extra time to care for the family.

There have been many studies that have examined how work and family demands affect work-family conflict with overwhelming evidence for a positive relationship between demands and work-family conflict. For example, researchers have shown that large amounts of time invested in a job (Fox & Dwyer, 1999; Gutek et al., 1991; O'Driscoll et al., 1992) and work hours (Aryee, 1992; Fox & Dwyer, 1999; Frone et al., 1997; Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1987; Gutek et al., 1991; Izraeli, 1993; Major, Klein, & Ehrhart, 2002; O'Driscoll et al., 1992; Parasuraman et al., 1996; Wallace, 1997) are related to high levels of work-to-family conflict. Conversely, working parents with children at home (Burke, Weir, & DuWors, 1980), family involvement (Adams et al., 1996) and other family-based factors (Aryee, 1992; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Loerch, Russell, & Rush, 1989) have been shown to relate to high levels of family-to-work conflict.

The actual demands that an individual has in their work and home domain are probably the first and most obvious source of conflict. If an individual has many young children at home the responsibilities of caring for the children take up resources and increase the level of family-to-work conflict. Yet, this is just one factor that can influence how an individual perceives where the conflict originates. Other factors such as life role salience may also influence the perceived direction of work-family conflict.

The idea that role salience, family and organizational support, gender role expectations and societal expectations are related to work-family conflict is not new. In

fact, in their seminal article on work and family interface, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) suggested seven propositions for directions for future research. Five of these factors are directly related to my earlier suppositions. First, Greenhaus and Beutell suggested that directionality is perceived after a response to the conflict has been made. Second, they suggested that pressures from both roles are necessary to create conflict. Third, they posited that the individual's perception of their roles is related to pressures in each domain. Fourth, they stated that role salience is related to work-family conflict. Fifth, they suggested that the strength of the conflict depends on the sanctions of noncompliance. Sixth, they posited that support from the family is related to work-family conflict. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) described these as factors associated with work-family conflict. I suggest that these factors are characteristics that help discern to what source the individual attributes the conflict. The factors are not only associated with work-family conflict, they help determine the directionality with which the conflict is perceived.

Life Role Salience

In their seminal article on work and family conflict, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) proposed that conflict increases as the role salience in either domain increases. Life role salience describes an individual's personal expectations concerning occupational, marital, and homecare roles (Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby, 1986). Although similar to other constructs such as work centrality (Kanungo, 1982; Mannheim, 1975; Paullay, Alliger, & Stone-Romero, 1994) and job involvement

(Brown, 1996) that measure the importance an individual attaches to a role, role salience encompasses salience of both the nonwork and work domain.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) suggested a direct relationship between role salience and work-family conflict. Similarly, Cinamon and Rich (2002) argued that it is not so much the role an individual most identifies with, but whether an individual attributes high importance to the given role. Frone and Rice (1987) described role saliency or centrality as a potential role pressure. They suggested that role involvement could affect work-family conflict in two ways: (a) an individual might spend excessive time in the primary role, thus leaving less time to maintain their responsibilities in the other role(s); and/or (b) the individual may be mentally preoccupied in the primary role which does not allow them to be fully involved in the other role(s).

Role salience has been tested as having a direct effect, indirect effect, and a moderating effect on work-family conflict. Research has shown a direct negative effect between work role salience and work-family conflict for men (Beutell, 1983; Greenhaus & Kopelman, 1981) and a positive affect between work role salience and work-family conflict for women (Beutell, 1983). In another study, Frone and Rice (1987) examined how high involvement in one's role(s) moderated the relationship between job-spouse, job-parent, and work-family conflict. They found that for spouses who had high spouse involvement (versus low spouse involvement), job-spouse conflict was related to job involvement. They also found that job involvement was related to job-parent conflict for both high and low involved parents. Major et al. (2002) tested career identity salience as

an indirect predictor to work-family conflict. Their results provided evidence that career identity salience was related to hours at work which was related to work-family conflict.

I suggest that not only does role salience affect the level of conflict, but it also affects how the individual perceives the conflict. Employees' sense of identity and what they value most may also play a role in the perceived direction of the work-family conflict. For example, an employee who feels that he is "father first" and "employee second" may attribute any work-family conflict to the work environment because he perceives work demands taking away from his resources needed at home. A father who has demands in either the work or family domain and feels that his role as a husband and father is to financially provide for the family may be more likely to report that his family is interfering with his work than report that his work is interfering with his family.

H1a: Individuals who experience high time demands and report a high level of work salience are more likely to report family interferes with work than individuals with low levels of work salience.

H1b: Individuals who experience high time demands and report a high level family salience are more likely to report work interferes with family than those with low levels of family salience.

Social Support

Research has shown that social support is related to many work outcomes including job satisfaction and well-being (Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayan, & Schwartz, 2002). Two of the major sources of social support are the organization and the family. Both sources of social support can provide emotional support and/or

instrumental support (Adams et al., 1996). The perceived direction of work-family conflict may be influenced by the support of their family and/or the support of their organization.

Supervisor Support. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) has been used as a framework to help understand how organizational support affects the relationship between the employee and organization (e.g., Casper, Martin, Buffardi, & Erdwins, 2002). An employee who feels that he or she receives support from his/her organization may feel like the gesture should be reciprocated (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Organizational support can be shown many different ways at many different levels. Support might be demonstrated through tangible benefits (e.g., pay, benefits, awards) or it could be shown even more through intangible sources (e.g., culture, Thomas & Ganster, 1995; perceptions of a work-family friendly environment, Allen, 2001). Overall, studies have shown that organizational support is negatively related to work-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Frone et al, 1997; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). One of the most proximal forms of organizational support is supervisor support. Supervisors are seen as "agents of the organization, having responsibility for directing and evaluating subordinates' performance, employees view their supervisor's favorable or unfavorable orientation toward them as indicative of the organization's support" (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; p. 700). Indeed, studies have shown that organizational support from a supervisor is more influential than support from other organizational entities (e.g., coworkers, organization as a whole; Leather, Lawrence, Beale, Cox, & Dickson, 1998).

Family Support. Family support occurs when family members instrumentally and emotionally help other family members. For example, instrumental support might be assisting with chores, whereas emotional support might be talking about work-related problems. Research has shown that family support is related to less work-family conflict (Burke, 1988; Frone et al., 1997; Parasuraman et al., 1996). Adams et al. (1996) found that the effects of family support were dependent on the direction of the conflict. Specifically, low levels of family support were related to high levels of work-to-family conflict and high levels of family support were related to lower levels of family-to-work conflict.

It has been empirically shown that social support from both the home and the supervisor can decrease work-family conflict (e.g., Adams et al., 1996; Burke, 1988). I suggest that not only does the support have a direct effect on work-family conflict, but it also affects how the individual perceives the work-family conflict. That is, identification of role conflict and the perceived direction may be moderated by the levels of support they receive in dealing with the demands at home and work.

H2a: Individuals who experience high time demands and report a high level of supervisor support are more likely to report family interferes with work than individuals with low levels of work salience.

H2b: Individuals who experience high time demands and report a high level family support are more likely to report work interferes with family than those with low levels of family support.

As suggested, employees who receive ample support from their supervisor and not from their family may interpret the conflict to be family interfering with work. In contrast, the employee may perceive the conflict to originate from the supervisor if they receive ample support from their family. Yet it is unlikely that an individual will only receive support from one domain. It is more probable that an employee will perceive different levels of family support and different levels of organizational support independently. With this in mind, I suggest that individuals who perceive higher levels of family support and lower levels of supervisor support will be more likely to report work-to-family conflict and individuals who perceive higher levels of supervisor support and lower levels of family support will be more likely to report family-to-work conflict. If the individual perceives support equally from both domains (i.e., high support from family and work or low support from family and work) then social support will not affect perceived directionality.

H2c: Individuals who experience high time demands, high level family support and low level of supervisor support are more likely to report work interferes with family than those with high time demands, high levels of family and supervisor support.

H2d: Individuals who experience high time demands, high level supervisor support and low level of family support are more likely to report family interferes with work than those with high time demands, high levels of family and supervisor support.

Gender Roles

There have been many studies that have examined the relationship between the sex of the employee and work-family conflict. There has been no conclusive evidence

that sex of the employee affects work-family conflict. Some studies report that women have higher rates of work-family conflict (e.g., Cinamon & Rich, 2002; Gutek et al., 1991), whereas other studies report that men have higher rates (e.g., Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Livingston & Burley, 1991) and some studies show no differences (e.g., Eagle, Miles, & Icenogle., 1997; Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998).

There are several possible reasons why these mixed findings are present. First, there may be variables (e.g., tenure, responsibility level, age of children) that are related to sex that may account for the majority of the variance between sex and work-family conflict. Second, the overall mixed findings may be due to the fact that in most cases researchers are measuring the biological variable *sex* and not the psychosocial variable of *gender role*. APA (2001) states "…gender is cultural and is the term to use when referring to men and women as social groups…" (p. 63). Eagly (2000) suggested that *gender differences* are the differences attributed to a product of culture and learning. Loscocoo (1997) pointed out that "gender is deeply embedded in all of the processes identified, as women and men confront or confirm their gender identities in constructing the linkages between their work and family lives" (p. 204). Thus I suggest both sex and gender roles need to be examined to fully understand an individual's perceived direction of work-family conflict.

The gender role model is based on the premise that there are differences in the expected roles of men and women as differentiated by society. Traditionally men have taken on the role of the breadwinner, while women have taken on the role of the

caregiver. Although these roles have become less defined in recent years, they are still evident in both the work and family domain (Loscocco, 1997). There can be different degrees of agreement between an individual's biological sex and their espoused gender role. Generally an individual who has traits such as caring, gentle, and emotional is described as feminine and an individual who has traits such as aggressive, independent, and competitive is described as masculine. The interaction between sex and gender role helps describe whether a person holds more traditional or nontraditional gender roles. A person is described as nontraditional if their sex and gender role are not in agreement as determined by societal norms (i.e., male sex and feminine gender role *or* female sex and masculine gender role). A person is described as traditional if their sex and gender role are in agreement as determined by societal norms (e.g., male sex and masculine gender *or* female sex and feminine gender). I suggest that it is the degree of gender role traditionalism (traditional versus nontraditional) that contributes to an individual's perceived direction of work-family conflict.

Individuals who have nontraditional gender role beliefs and expectations may not perceive one domain (work or family) as a greater source of conflict than the other. In regards to societal expectations, these individuals do not have a rigid belief system of what is expected of them based on their gender. On the other hand, individuals who have more traditional beliefs and expectations concerning a role would be guided by well-defined rules and therefore have a greater sense of conflict for the same situation. For example, a male with traditional gender role values would perceive that his job is to earn money so he can provide for the family. If any conflict occurs between the work and

family domain, he would be more likely to attribute the blame to the family domain because it is interfering with his primary purpose.

A comprehensive search of the literature identified only one study that used gender roles versus sex when examining work-family conflict. Livingston and Burley (1991) examined how both sex and gender roles affected *anticipated* work-family conflict. Their results showed that men were more likely to anticipate work-family conflict than women. Contrary to expectation, there were no differences between gender role types (masculine and feminine) and expectations of work-family conflict. Unfortunately, the study only examined anticipated and not perceived work-family conflict. Additionally, the authors only used the global work-family conflict scale and did not examine the perceived direction of the conflict.

Role theory suggests that individuals respond to the environment based on their perceived role and the expectations that go along with that role. An individual with more traditional gender roles has a more defined schema of what is expected of him or herself in both the work and family domain. If something impedes on these expectations they are more likely to attribute the conflict to their secondary role (family for traditional male and work for traditional female). So if a traditional male experiences role conflict from working long hours on the job, he would blame the family domain for the conflict. In contrast, a nontraditional male who works long hours on the job would be less influenced by gender roles when attributing the direction of conflict.

H3: Males who experience high time demands and have traditional gender roles are more likely to report that family interferes with work than males with less traditional gender roles.

Societal Roles

Most people will identify their family as being more important than work (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Gutek, Repetti, & Silver, 1988; Gutek et al., 1991), regardless of their sex or gender role status. It is therefore not surprising that individuals consistently report higher levels of work-to-family conflict than family-to-work conflict (Eagle et al., 1997; Frone et al., 1992; Gutek et al., 1991; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 1996). Yet just because an individual states that his/her family is more important does not mean that his or her behavior is consistent with this view. The family response may be culturally acceptable but not evident in the observable behaviors of some people. The magnitude of the importance of family conveyed may not match the frequency with which an individual reports family as the primary source of conflict (family-to-work conflict).

There has been much research on the influence of socially desirable responding on self-report items (Paulhus, 1991). Studies have found that people use Impression Management (IM) when responding to items that appear to have socially acceptable norms (e.g., Paulhus, 1991). IM tactics occur when an individual makes a conscious effort to distort their response in favor of a more socially acceptable response. Specifically, people perceive that it is more socially desirable to report work as the source of work-family conflict than family. Therefore, individuals who have high time

demands at work and engage in IM tactics will be more likely to report work-to-family conflict than individuals who engage in less IM tactics.

H4: Individuals who experience high time demands and engage in high IM tactics will be more likely to report work interferes with family than individuals who engage in low IM tactics.

Work-Family Interface Summary

I propose a model in which various characteristics moderate the relationship between time demands and the perceived source of work-family conflict. This model is based on Frone et al.'s model (1997; revised from Frone et al., 1992) and depicted in Figure 1. The present model differs from Frone et al. in the underlying purpose of the linking variables (i.e., family and work support, work and family salience). Whereas Frone et al. suggests that the linking variables are more explanatory in nature (i.e., they mediate the time demands – work-family conflict relationship), I suggest that they are actually part of the attribution process for the individual. Specifically, the way an individual perceives the direction of work-family conflict depends on the demands in each domain, the salience of work and family roles, the perceived support from their family and organization, and their own and others expectations of what is appropriate behavior for a given role.

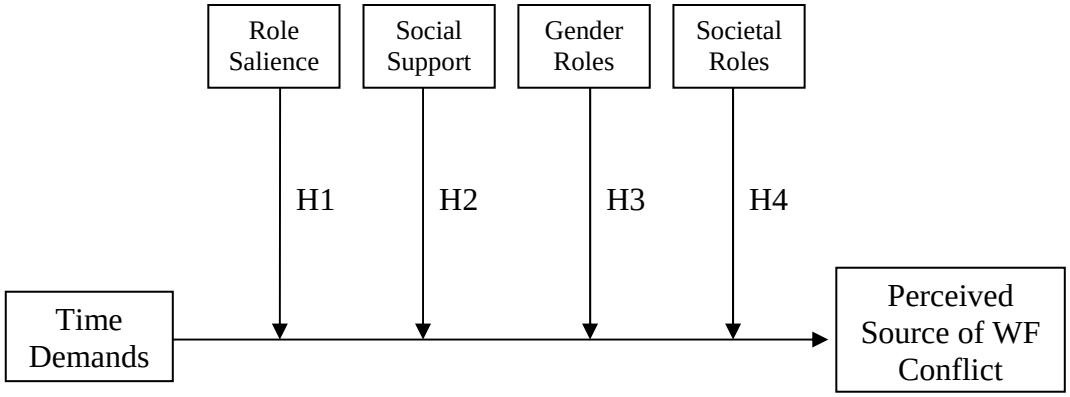

Figure 1

Source of Work-Family Conflict Model

Measuring Source of Work-Family Conflict

In past research, work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict have been assessed by measures that evaluate the *level* of conflict in each domain (e.g., Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). Yet these scales have several limitations when used to reflect the primary source of conflict. First, the separate scales suggest that the two constructs are two distinct (but related) entities. This does not support the contention of a scarcity approach that work and family are one system and individuals have a limited amount of resources within the system. It seems to indicate that individuals have resources/demands in the family domain and they have resources/demands in the work domain and these two domains are not interrelated.

Second, researchers compare work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict by comparing mean scores for the two scales and making the assumption that the higher

mean indicates which domain is the source of conflict (e.g., if work-to-family conflict is higher than family-to-work conflict then the work domain is assumed to be source of the conflict). This method would only be valid if we were certain that the two scales equally measure the conflict in the respective domain. There has been no test to confirm or disconfirm this assumption. In an attempt to overcome these limitations, I develop a *Source of Work-Family Conflict* scale that includes both work and family on the same source of conflict continuum. On this scale, respondents must allocate a percentage of their stress to each domain. Details about the measure are provided in the method section.

METHOD

Power Analysis

To test the proposed hypotheses a power analysis was conducted to ensure data were gathered from an adequate number of participants. Although there is research that has shown the bivariate relationship between time demands and work-family conflict (ranged from .10 to .56; e.g., Aryee, 1992; Fox & Dwyer, 1999; Frone et al., 1997; Gutek et al., 1991), I could not locate any research that examined the multivariate relationship between time demands, work-family conflict and the proposed moderator variables (role salience, social support, gender role, societal role). Therefore when conducting power analyses for all analyses, I estimated effect sizes based on the assumption that the control variables would have a small to moderate relationship with work-family conflict (R^2 = .10), the main effects would add a small increase in the model (R^2 = .05), and the interaction terms would also have a small effect and account for an additional five percent of the variance (R^2 = .05). With these estimates, a power level of .80, and a significance value of .10, it was determined that I needed approximately 100 participants.

Participants

Participants (N = 180) were recruited from two police departments (n = 58) and two fire departments (n = 122) in the southwest United States. I contacted the organizations by phone and explained the purpose of the study and solicited their participation in the study. Management informed the employees about the study and encouraged participation. Since the primary focus of this study was on work and family,

I did not use data from single or childless participants (*n* = 67). Due to the small number of females in the sample (*n* =13), I only examined data from male respondents. Of the total possible sample (*N* = 413), the response rate was 27% for the police department and 61% for the fire department. The final sample consisted of male employees who (1) worked full time; (2) were married and had children; and (3) were employed in any job type (e.g., supervisory, technical, patrol). The final sample size was 100 (70 = police station employees, 30 = fire department employees).

Participants' ages ranged from 24 to 63 with a mean of 41.1 (*SD* = 8.19). Regarding race, 94.0% of participants identified themselves as White, 3.0% as African-American or Black, 1.0% as Hispanic, and 2.0% as other. On average, participants had been married for 15.72 years (*SD* = 9.09) and had been with their organization for 15.72 years (*SD* = 8.48). On average, the youngest child in participants' homes was 8.28 years old (*SD* = 6.66). Concerning education, 9.0% of my sample reported having less than a high school degree, 52.0% reported having a high school degree or equivalent, 14.0% reported having completed some college, 24.0% reported having a college degree, and 1.0% reported completing some post-graduate coursework and/or a degree.

Measures

The employees completed a survey that contained questions about demographic characteristics, work-family issues, and organizational/individual experiences and attitudes. A brief summary of each measure is described below. Please refer to Appendix A for the complete list of questionnaire items. Unless otherwise noted, items were

responded to in a 5-point agreement scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) and calculated by taking the mean of all items.

Demographics

Demographic variables included sex, age, ethnicity, education, marital status, number/age of children, tenure, and work status.

Time Demands

Work-related time demands and family-related time demands were each operationalized by asking participants' self-report of the average number of hours spent on work and family related activities. Jacobs (1998) suggested that self-report measures of time at work are a "reasonably reliable indicator" to measure work hours, and in his research the respondents did not exaggerate their hours.

Role Salience

The Occupation Role Reward value subscale of the Life Role Salience Scale (Amatea et al., 1986) was used to measure work role salience. The 5-item subscale is designed to measure the personal importance or value attributed to participation in the job or occupation role. Sample items of the work-to-family conflict subscale include: "I expect my job to give me more real satisfaction than anything else I do," and "Having work that is interesting and exciting to me is my most important life goal." The alpha coefficients reported by Amatea et al. (1966) ranged from .82 to .85. The alpha coefficient for work salience for the current study was .63.

A revised version of the Marital Role Reward value subscale of the Life Role Salience Scale (Amatea et al., 1986) was used to measure family role salience. The

revised 5-item subscale is designed to measure the personal importance or value attributed to participation in the family (spouse or parent) role. Sample items of the work-to-family conflict subscale include: “I expect the major satisfactions in my life to come from my family relationships,” and “A happy family life is the most important thing to me.” The alpha coefficients of the marital role reward value subscale reported by Amatea et al. (1986) ranged from .91 to .94. The alpha coefficient for family salience for the current study was .78.

Social Support

Supervisor support was assessed with the Perceived Supervisor Support scale that is based on the Perceived Organizational Support Scale (Eisenberger et al., 1986). It examines how much an employee’s supervisor values the contribution of and cares about the well-being of his or her employees. The eight-item scale was responded to on a 5-point response scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Sample items include: “My supervisor would forgive an honest mistake on my part,” and “My supervisor really cares about my well-being.” For the current study the alpha coefficient for supervisor support was .89.

Family support was measured with a scale designed by Baruch-Feldman et al. (2002) with items based on Karasek’s Job Content Survey (Karasek et al., 1985). The Family Support Scale examines how much an individual perceives support from his or her family. The four item scale has a 5-point scale response set (1 = not at all to 5 = very much). Sample items include: “When something goes wrong at work, I can talk it over with my friends or family,” and “My friends/family help me feel better when I’ve had a

hard day at work." Baruch-Feldman et al. (2002) reported an alpha coefficient of .91. For the current study the alpha coefficient for family support was .86.

Gender Roles

The Personal Attributes Questionnaire was used to measure the level of instrumental (masculinity) and expressive (femininity) characteristics of an individual. These perceived traits of an individual are believed to differentiate the sexes based on societal norms (Spence & Helmreich, 1978). The measure consists of 17 pairs of characteristics that can be used to describe an individual at two contradictory extremes. There is a 5-point scale between the two characteristics and the respondents are asked to choose where they best fit on the 5-point continuum. Sample items include: "Not at all aggressive" to "very aggressive" and "Never cries" to "cries very easily." The measure has two factors: masculinity (e.g., very aggressive is a masculine trait) and femininity (e.g., cries very easily is a feminine trait). Responses from each factor are added to obtain gender-role identity scores of masculinity and femininity. In a review of the Personal Attributes Questionnaire, Hill, Fekken, and Bond (2000) stated that the literature has reported reliabilities (Cronbach alpha) of .51 to .85 (instrumental; masculinity) and .65 to .82 (expressive; femininity). For the current study the alpha coefficient for overall gender roles, masculine gender roles, and feminine gender roles were .51, .29 and .77 respectively. I examined the individual items and calculated the reliability for the scale if each item was deleted to ascertain if there were any items that were contributing to the low reliabilities. Results revealed one item, "not at all self-

confident versus self-confident" that was adversely affecting the reliability of the scales and when deleted the reliabilities improved to .71 (full scale) and .61 (masculine scale).

Social Norm Responses

The abbreviated Impression Management subscale of the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR-6) was used to measure how likely an individual gives overly desired or socially accepted responses (Paulhus, 1984, 1991). The 12-item scale has a 5-point response set (1 = not true to 5 = very true) and some of the responses are reversed scored. Sample items of the impression management subscale include: "I never take things that don't belong to me," and "When I was young I sometimes stole things." For the current study the alpha coefficient for the impression management was .74. To score the measure, I recoded fours and fives into a one and summed all the ones.

Work-Family Conflict

Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) Work-Family Conflict Scale was used to assess work-family conflict in both directions. The scale is based on time- and strain-based components of conflict. The ten-item scale includes two subscales that measure work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. Sample items of the work-to-family conflict subscale include: "The demands of work interfere with my home and family life," and "The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities." Sample items from the family-to-work conflict subscale include: "I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home," and "Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties." The alpha coefficients reported by Netemeyer et al. (1996) for the work-to-family conflict

scale ranged from .88 to .89 and for the family-to-work conflict scale ranged from .83 to .89. For the current study the alpha coefficient for work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict were .91 and .81, respectively.

Source of Work-Family Conflict

I constructed the perception of the source of work-family conflict scale for this study. The scale was designed to ascertain where the primary source of an individual's work-family conflict originates. The scale contains ten short phrases (e.g., "I am tired"," I am stressed") and first asks respondents if any of the phrases describe how they have felt in the past month (yes/no). If they mark yes, then the respondent is asked how much family and work are responsible for each statement. Scores for this measure are calculated by obtaining the mean of the percentages allocated to the family domain. Respondents were asked for both family and work percentages to minimize biased responses. For instance, if the respondents were only asked about how much of the conflict comes from only one domain (e.g., only work), their responses may be biased toward that domain. For the current study the alpha coefficient for source of work-family conflict scale was .93.

It should be noted that the work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict scales and the source of work-family conflict are the criterion measures in the current study. The work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict measures were used to assess how much conflict is present and the work-family conflict source scale indicates to what extent the individual attributes work-family conflict to the family domain.

Procedure

The study was a non-experimental study utilizing questionnaires. Depending on the organizations preference, the questionnaires were administered on paper (N = 89) or via the web (N = 11; one police station). Initially I met with management to explain the purpose and the requirements of the study. I also requested that management send out a memo to the employees encouraging support and participation in the study. Employees were asked to complete either a 30-minute web-based survey or paper-based survey during working hours. Employees were told that (1) all information collected on the employees would remain confidential; (2) names would not be collected so individual responses would be anonymous; and (3) results would be reported at an aggregated level.

Analyses

Exploratory Data Analysis

Before a formal analysis was performed, exploratory data analyses were conducted to identify any data entry errors and outliers, examine patterns within the data, and test for assumptions (Tukey, 1977). First, a univariate exploration of the independent and dependent variables was conducted by examining measures of central tendency, variability measures, and the shape of the distributions. Second, bivariate examinations were conducted to examine the relationships between the variables. This information was used to confirm relationships with the control variables.

The basic psychometric properties of the source of work-family conflict scale were examined since it is a new scale and has not undergone any validation procedures.

First, inter-item correlations were conducted to examine the relationship between items. Second, zero-order correlations were calculated between the source of work-family conflict scale and the two work-family conflict scales to confirm convergent validity. The family component of the source of work-family conflict scale was expected to have a positive relationship with the family-to-work conflict scale and a negative relationship with the work-to-family conflict scale. Unfortunately there were too few responses to all items (n = 17 to 100) to conduct a factor analysis and confirm unidimensionality.

Interaction Analyses

All interaction hypotheses were tested with moderated regression. Aiken and West's (1991) procedure was followed: (1) predictor and moderator variables were centered to prevent multicollinearity between the predictor variables and the interaction term; (2) interaction terms were created between the centered predictor and the centered moderator; (3) moderated regressions were conducted by first entering the control variables, followed by the predictor and moderator variables, followed by the interaction between predictor and moderator. A significant interaction was determined by a significant change in the *R* square. Moderated regressions yield a high likelihood of a Type II error rate (Aiken & West, 1991), therefore I utilized an alpha level of .10 when testing interactions. A .05 alpha level was used for all other analyses.

Control Variables

Sex, marital status, age of child, and organizational tenure served as control variables in all analyses, because these variables might affect the extent to which an individual experiences work-family conflict. For example, individuals with young

children are likely to have more family demands than individuals with teenagers. Single individuals may not experience as many family responsibilities as married individuals. Past research on work-family conflict supports these relationships (e.g., Frone et al., 1997). In this study, sex and marital status were controlled for by only including married males in the sample. Age of youngest child and organizational tenure were controlled for statistically.

Hypotheses

In the regression analyses time demands was operationalized two different ways: (1) work demands (hours working in office, working at home on job-related task); and (2) family demands (hours in home chores and errands, in activities with family, caring for aging parents).

Hypothesis 1a predicted that individuals who experience high time demands and report a high level of work salience are more likely to perceive family interferes with work than individuals with high time demands and low levels of work salience. This was tested with both the family-to-work conflict scale and the source of work-family conflict scale.

Hypothesis 1b predicted that individuals who experience high time demands and report a high level family salience are more likely to perceive work interferes with family than those with low levels of family salience. This was tested with both the work-to-family conflict scale and the source of work-family conflict scale.

Hypothesis 2a predicted that individuals who experience high time demands and report a high level of supervisor support are more likely to perceive family interferes

with work than individuals with low levels of supervisor support. This was tested with both the family-to-work conflict scale and the source of work-family conflict scale.

Hypothesis 2b predicted that individuals who experience high time demands and report a high level family support are more likely to perceive work interferes with family than those with low levels of family support. This was tested with both the work-to-family conflict scale and the source of work-family conflict scale.

Hypothesis 2c predicted that individuals who experience high time demands, high levels of family support, and low levels of supervisor support are more likely to perceive work interferes with family than those with high time demands and high levels of both family and supervisor support. This was tested with a moderated regression that examined the significance of a three way interaction between time demands, family support, and organizational support on both the work-to-family conflict scale and the source of work-family conflict scale.

Hypothesis 2d predicted that individuals who experience high time demands, high levels of supervisor support, and low levels of family support are more likely to perceive family interferes with work than those with high time demands and high levels of both family and supervisor support. This was tested with a moderated regression that examined the significance of a three way interaction between time demands, family support, and organizational support on family-to-work conflict.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that males who experience high time demands and have traditional gender roles are more likely to perceive family interferes with work more

than work interferes with family. This hypothesis was tested with both the work-to-family conflict scale and the source of work-family conflict scale

Hypotheses 4 predicted that individuals who experience high time demands and employ more IM tactics will be more likely to report work interferes with family than individuals who employ less IM tactics. The hypothesis was tested with both the work-to-family conflict scale and the source of work-family conflict scale.

RESULTS

Exploratory Analyses

Table 1 depicts descriptive statistics, correlations, and coefficient alphas for all the variables of interest. As can be seen in Table 1, family work hours were positively related to an individual's perception that the source of conflict originates in the family domain (r = .30). In contrast, job hours were not significantly related to the source of work-family conflict scale.

Since two survey methodologies were employed (i.e., paper and pencil and web-based surveys), I conducted independent sample t-tests between groups to examine any differences that might be attributed to methodology. Results showed there no differences between groups for all key variables (listed in Table 1). Additionally, I examined the data by occupational type (only police station employees completed the web-based survey). An independent sample *t*-tests was conducted between occupational groups to examine any differences that might be attributed to occupation. There were differences by occupation in: (1) supervisor support with the fire station employees reporting lower levels of supervisor support (M = 3.74, SD = .63) then the police station employees (M = 4.07, SD = .53; t = -0.33, $p < .05$) and; (2) work hours with the fire station employees reporting more work hours (M = 67.15, SD = .24.45) than the police station employees (M = 47.20, SD = 9.54; t = 19.94, $p < .05$).

Source of Work-Family Conflict Scale

Respondents were first asked if they have experienced any of the feelings described in the ten short phrases within the past months. For every experience they

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations between Variables

	Mean	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Tenure	15.72	8.48	--							
2. Age	41.14	8.19	.80**	--						
3. Age Child	8.28	6.66	.71**	.79**	--					
4. Job Hours	61.25	23.00	.06	.06	.11	--				
5. Family Hours	32.61	19.36	-.09	-.06	-.02	-.00	--			
6. Family Salience	4.25	0.56	-.20*	-.20	-.12	-.23*	.13	(.78)		
7. Job Salience	3.31	0.52	-.17	-.17	-.14	.12	-.01	.11	(.63)	
8.Family Support	4.25	0.56	-.21*	-.23*	-.19	-.09	.25*	.36**	.04	(.86)
9.Supervise Support	4.12	0.61	.09	.04	.08	-.07	.10	.09	.03	.29**
10.Feminine	21.38	3.83	.01	.04	-.05	.04	.20	.23*	-.04	.51**
11.Masculine	20.35	3.23	-.07	-.06	-.03	.04	.11	.10	.05	.09
12.IM	3.81	2.39	.11	.09	.06	.06	-.08	-.03	-.13	.17
13.WFC	3.01	0.90	-.14	-.18	-.22	.14	-.19	.03	.12	-.17
14.FWC	2.23	0.67	.07	.05	-.00	-.04	.02	-.00	-.01	-.06
15.Source of WFC	42.67	17.15	.02	-.02	.03	.14	.30**	.01	-.01	.29**

Table 1 continued

	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Tenure							
2. Age							
3. Age Child							
4. Job Hours							
5. Family Hours							
6. Family Salience							
7. Job Salience							
8.Family Support							
9.Supervisor Support	(.89)						
10.Feminine	.25*	(.77)					
11.Masculine	.04	.19	(.61)				
12.IM	.28**	.23*	.11	(.74)			
13.WFC	-.11	-.16	.02	.06	(.91)		
14.FWC	-.17	.00	-.03	-.07	.33**	(.81)	
15.Source of WFC	.10	.27**	-.11	.02	-.24*	-.15	(.93)

Note. IM = Impression Management; WFC = Work-family conflict; FWC = Family-to-work conflict. N = 88 – 100.

*$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

endorsed, they allocated up to 100 points to each domain to represent the extent to which each domain is responsible for these feelings. The average number of events that the participants reported experiencing was five (10.3%). Approximately 17.5% of the participants reported experiencing less than four of the events, whereas 21.6% reported experiencing over six events. Inter-item correlations among the items in the scale ranged from .08 to .88 and are shown in Table 2. The average source of work-family conflict score was 42.67 (*SD* = 17.75) with a range of 6.83 to 90. The higher the score, the more the individual attributed the source of conflict to the family, with a 100 indicating they attributed all of their conflict to the family domain.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1a predicted that individuals who reported high time demands and had high levels of work salience would be more likely to perceive family interferes with work than individuals with low levels of work salience. There was a significant interaction between work hours and work salience for the *source of work-family conflict* (β =-.21, $p < .10$; see Table 3), however the interaction was not in the hypothesized direction. The graphical illustration of this interaction in Figure 2 suggests two trends. First, for both groups (low and high salience), the more hours they worked on the job the more likely the individuals reported that the source of conflict was the work domain. Second, when work hours were high, individuals who reported a high level of work salience were more likely to perceive the conflict to originate in the work domain than individuals who reported a low level of work salience. Contrary to expectation, there was not a significant interaction between work hours and work salience on the family-to-

work conflict scale. Further, family hours and work salience did not significantly interact with one another to predict family-to-work conflict or source of work-family conflict. The results for these nonsignificant findings are depicted in Appendix B (Tables 10 to 12). These results fail to support Hypothesis 1a.

Hypothesis 1b predicted that individuals who reported high time demands and had high levels of family salience would be more likely to perceive work interferes with family than individuals with low levels of family salience. Contrary to expectation, the interaction between time demands and family salience was not significant for family-to-work conflict or source of work-family conflict, failing to support Hypothesis 1b. The results for these analyses are depicted in Appendix B (Tables 13 to 16). Overall, Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2a predicted that individuals who reported high time demands and had high levels of supervisor support would be more likely to perceive family interfering with work than individuals with low levels of supervisor support. Contrary to expectation, the interaction between time demands and supervisor support was not significant for family-to-work conflict or source of work-family conflict failing to support Hypothesis 2a. The results for these analyses are depicted in Appendix B (Tables 17 to 20).

Table 2

Inter-item correlation for source of work-family conflict scale

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. I am busy.	--									
2. I find it difficult to complete all the tasks I should.	.31*	--								
3. I am tired.	.43**	.44**	--							
4. I am stressed.	.42**	.53**	.51**	--						
5. I do not have time to complete more than just basic tasks.	.57**	.60**	.41*	.69**	--					
6. I find it difficult to juggle all of my responsibilities.	.46**	.63**	.53**	.66**	.83**	--				
7. I feel overwhelmed at the end of the day.	.50**	.73**	.56**	.70**	.80**	.87**	--			
8. I feel weighed down by all my responsibilities.	.50**	.74**	.57**	.74**	.73**	.82**	.88**	--		
9. I have too much to do.	.47**	.65**	.31*	.73**	.79**	.84**	.87**	.85**	--	
10. I find it difficult to concentrate on daily tasks.	.23	.71**	.08	.76**	.70**	.73**	.68**	.65**	.78**	--

Note. $N = 17 – 100$.
*$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Interaction between work hours and work salience on source of work-family conflict

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	0.30	.46	.15	.01	.01
Age	-0.12	.59	-.05		
Age of youngest child	-0.05	.47	0.02		
2. Work Hours	0.03	.09	.04	.02	.01
Work Salience	-3.55	3.86	-.11		
3. Work Salience X Work Hours	-0.28^{+}	.16	-.21	.06	.04^{+}

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

$^{+}p < .10$.

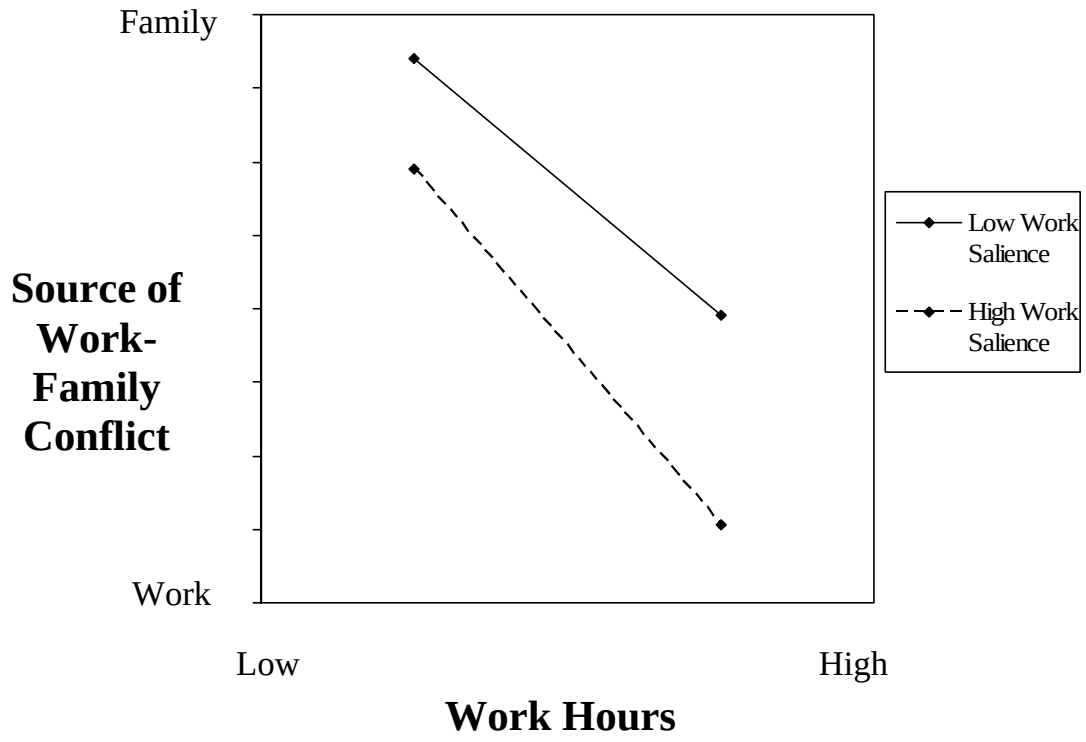

Figure 2

Interaction between work hours and work salience in predicting source of work-family conflict

Hypothesis 2b predicted that individuals who reported high time demands and had high levels of family support would be more likely to perceive work interferes with family than individuals with low levels of family support. Contrary to expectation, the interaction between time demands and family support was not significant for work-to-family conflict or source of work-family conflict, failing to support Hypothesis 2b. The results for these analyses are depicted in Appendix B (Tables 21 to 24).

Hypothesis 2c predicted that individuals who reported high time demands and had high levels of family support, and low levels of supervisor support would be more likely to perceive work interferes with family than individuals with high time demands, high levels of family support and high supervisor support. Hypothesis 2d predicted that individuals who reported high time demands and had high levels of supervisor support and low levels of family support would be more likely to perceive family interferes with work than individuals with high time demands, high levels of family support, and high supervisor support.

There was a significant three-way interaction between work hours, family support, and supervisor support for all three conflict scales. The results for these analyses are depicted in Table 4, 5, and 6. In order to further interpret the findings the work hours variable was divided into two categories, high work hours (above the mean) and low work hours (below the mean). To illustrate the relationships between the three variables, two graphs were created for each conflict scale. As shown in Figure 3, for *family-to-work conflict* there were minimal differences in the patterns of the interactions between family support and supervisor support for the two levels of work hours. That is, for individuals with high and low work hours, high levels of family support (versus low levels of family support) were positively related to family-to-work conflict. Additionally, regardless of work hours, individuals with high levels of supervisor and family support were most likely to report high levels of family-to-work conflict compared to individuals with low levels of supervisor and family support.

Figure 4 graphically displays the relationship between work hours, family support, and supervisor support on *work-to-family conflict*. Family and supervisor support were differentially related to work-to-family conflict depending on work hours. For low work hours and low family support, there is no relationship between supervisor support and work-to-family conflict and for low work hours and high family support there was a negative relationship between supervisor support and work-to-family conflict. Conversely, for high work hours there was a positive relationship between supervisor support and work-to-family conflict regardless of family support. This relationship was slightly stronger for individuals with high family support.

Figure 5 shows the interaction between work hours, supervisor support, and family support on the *source of work-family conflict*. Family and supervisor support were differentially related to source of work-family conflict depending on the number of hours worked on the job. Under low work hours, individuals with high levels of supervisor support are more likely to report family is the primary source of conflict and this tendency is even stronger for individuals with high levels of family support. For high work hours, individuals with high levels of supervisor support were more likely to report work was the source of their conflict and this tendency was even stronger for individuals with low levels of family support. These findings fail to support Hypothesis 2c and 2d.

There were no significant three-way interactions between family hours, family support, and supervisor support for any of the three conflict scales. The results for these analyses are displayed in Appendix B (Tables 25 and 27).

Table 4

Interaction between time demands, family support and supervisor support on family-to-work conflict

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.02	.02	.27	.03	.03
Age	-.01	.02	-.08		
Age of youngest child	-.01	.02	-.15		
2. Work Hours	.00	.00	.01	.04	.02
Family Support	-.01	.14	-.01		
Supervisor Support	-.14	.13	-.13		
3. FS X Family Hours	.00	.01	.06	.05	.00
SS X Family Hours	.00	.00	.02		
4. SS X FS X Family Hours	.78**	.20	.44	.22	.17**

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

FS = Family Support. SS = Supervisor Support. ** $p < .01$

Table 5

Interaction between time demands, family support and supervisor support on work-family conflict

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.01	.03	.05	.07	.07
Age	.01	.03	.10		
Age of youngest child	-.05*	.03	.36		
2. Work Hours	.01	.00	.21	.16	.09*
Family Support	-.29	-.17	-.19		
Supervisor Support	-.00	.16	-.00		
3. FS X Family Hours	.00	.01	.01	.16	.00
SS X Family Hours	-.00	.01	-.01		
4. SS X FS X Family Hours	.54^{+}	.27	.22	.20	.04^{+}

Note. N = 100. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

FS = Family Support. SS = Supervisor Support. $^{+}p < .10$, * $p < .05$.

Table 6

Interaction between time demands, family support and supervisor support on source of work-family conflict

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.30	.46	.14	.01	.01
Age	-.11	.59	-.05		
Age of youngest child	-.05	.47	-.02		
2. Work Hours	.06	.09	.08	.07	.06
Family Support	7.19*	3.32	.26		
Supervisor Support	-.01	3.20	.00		
3. FS X Work Hours	.05	.14	.04	.08	.01
SS X Work Hours	.05	.10	.06		
4. SS X FS X Work Hours	-10.89*	5.11	-.26	.13	.06*

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

FS = Family Support. SS = Supervisor Support. * $p < .05$.

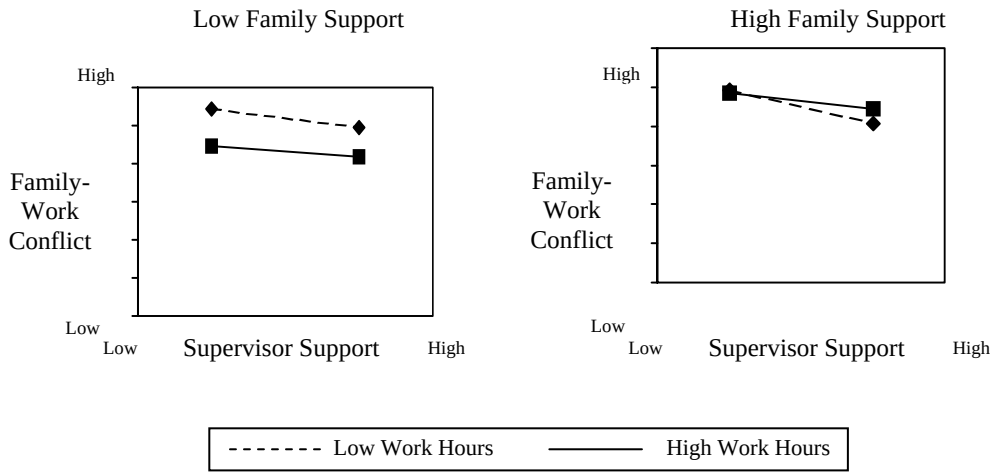

Figure 3

Interaction between work hours, supervisor support, and family support in predicting family-to-work conflict

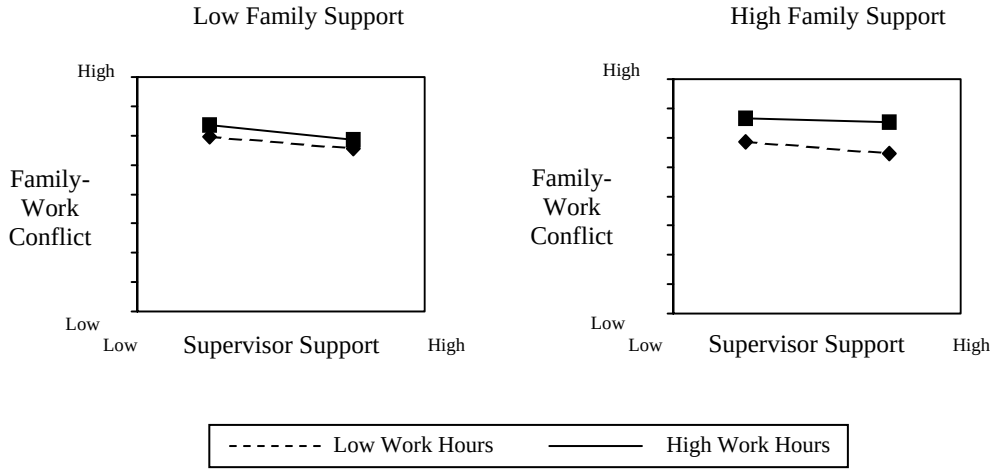

Figure 4

Interaction between work hours, supervisor support, and family support in predicting work -family conflict

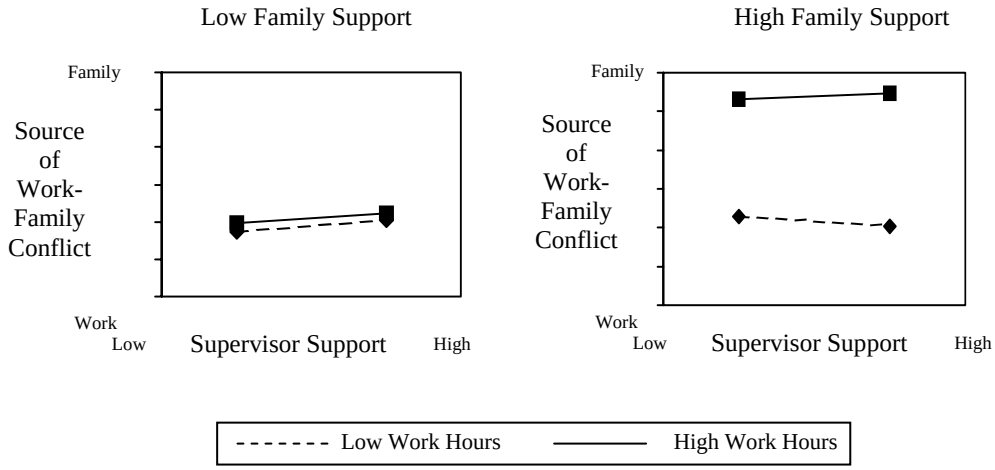

Figure 5

Interaction between work hours, supervisor support, and family support in predicting source of work -family conflict

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 predicted that men who reported high time demands and hold traditional gender roles (i.e., high on masculinity and low on femininity) were more likely to perceive that family interferes with work than work interferes with family. There were significant interactions with masculinity scores when predicting the *source of work-family conflict* (β =.-.28, $p < .05$), however, the pattern of relationships was contrary to expectation. The results for these analyses are depicted in Table 7 and Figure 6. Individuals who were high in masculinity and reported working more hours were more likely to report that the source of their conflict was the work domain, whereas individuals who were low in masculinity and worked fewer hours were more likely to report the source of the conflict was in the family domain.

There were no significant interactions between time demands and masculinity scores for the work-to-family conflict or family-to-work conflict scales. The results for these analyses are depicted in Appendix B (Tables 28 to 31).

Table 7

Interaction between work hours and masculinity on family-to-work conflict

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.30	.46	.14	.01	.01
Age	-.12	.59	-.05		
Age of youngest child	-.05	.47	-.02		
2. Work Hours	.03	.09	.04	.01	.00
Masculinity	-.08	.61	-.02		
3. Masculinity X Work Hours	-.07*	.03	-.28	.09	.08*

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

*$p < .05$.

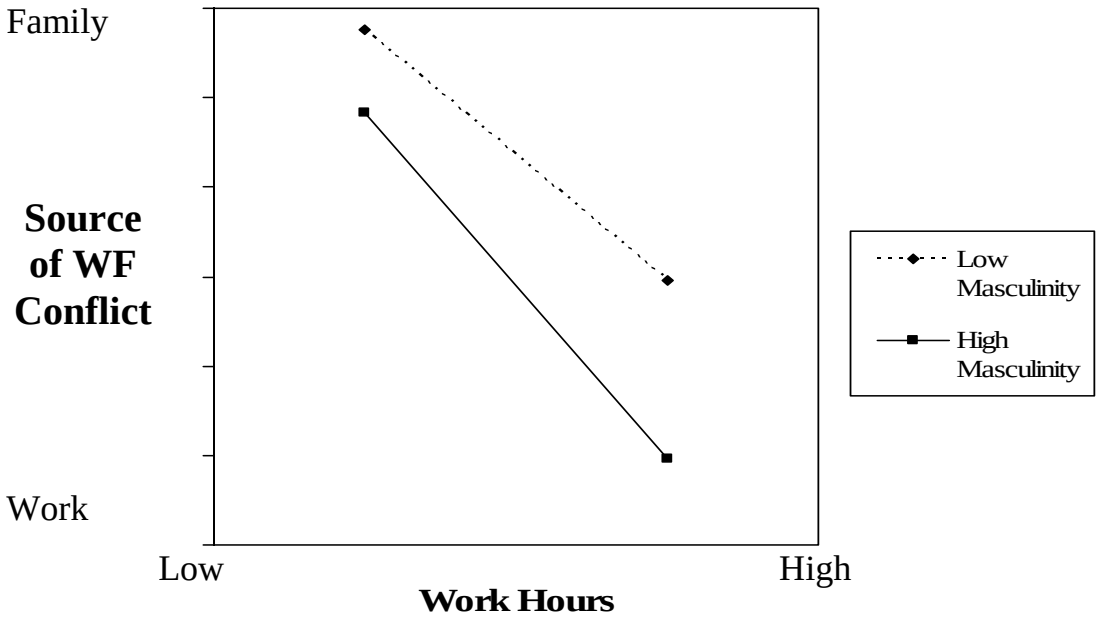

Figure 6

Interaction between work hours and masculinity in predicting source of work-family conflict

There were no significant interactions between time demands and femininity scores for any of the conflict scales. The results for these analyses are depicted in Appendix B (Tables 32 to 37). These results fail to support Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 predicted that under a high level of time demands, individuals who reported high levels of impression management were more likely to perceive that work interferes with family than individuals who reported low levels of impression management.

There was a significant interaction between work hours and impression management on the *source of work-family conflict* (β = .19, $p < .10$). The results for these analyses are depicted in Table 8 and Figure 7. Inconsistent with expectation, individuals who reported high levels of impression management and a high number of work hours were more likely to report that the source of their conflict was the family domain.

Table 8

Interaction between work hours and impression management on source of work-family conflict

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.30	.46	.14	.01	.01
Age	-.12	.59	-.05		
Age of youngest child	-.05	.47	-.02		
2. Work Hours	.03	.09	.04	.01	.00
Impression Management	.41	.83	.06		
3. IM X Work Hours	.07^{+}	.04	.19	.05	.04^{+}

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model. IM = Impression Management, $^{+}p < .10$.

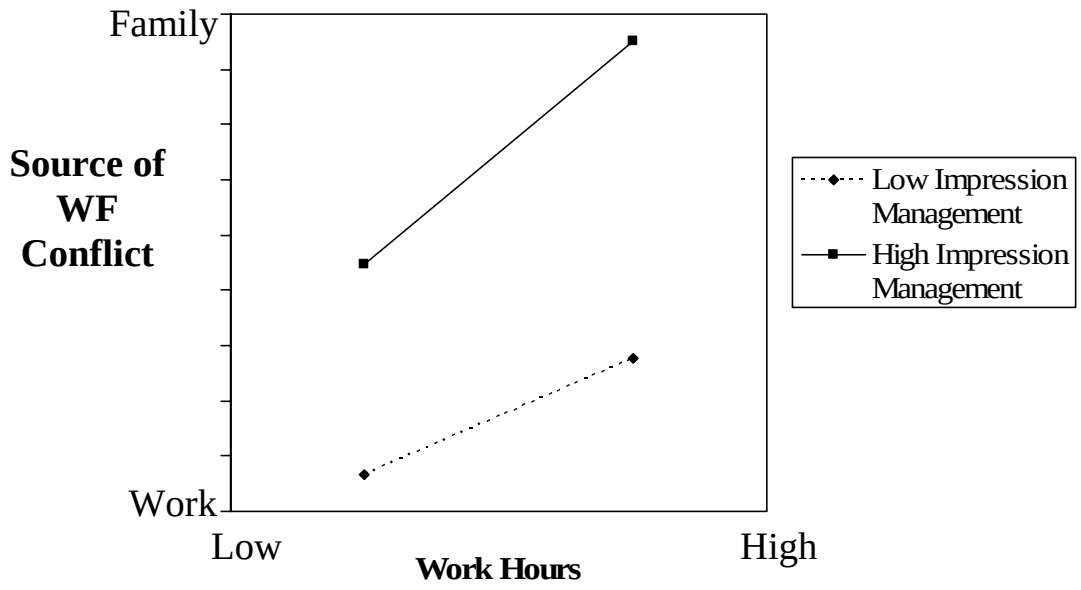

Figure 7

Interaction between work hours and impression management in predicting source of work-family conflict.

There was also a significant interaction between family hours and impression management on the *source of work-family conflict* ($\beta = -.22$, $p < .10$). Individuals who reported a high number of hours spent in family activities and also high levels of impression management were more likely to report that the primary source of conflict was the work domain. The results for these analyses are depicted in Table 9 and Figure 8.

Table 9

Interaction between family hours and impression management on source of work-family conflict

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.21	.50	.10	.01	.01
Age of youngest child	.01	.58	.00		
Age	-.11	.46	-.05		
2. Family Hours	.26*	.10	.39	.10	.09*
Impression Management	.81	.79	.12		
3. IM X Work Hours	-.08^{+}	.05	-.22	.14	.04^{+}

Note. N = 100. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model. IM = Impression Management; $^{+}p < .10$, * $p < .05$.

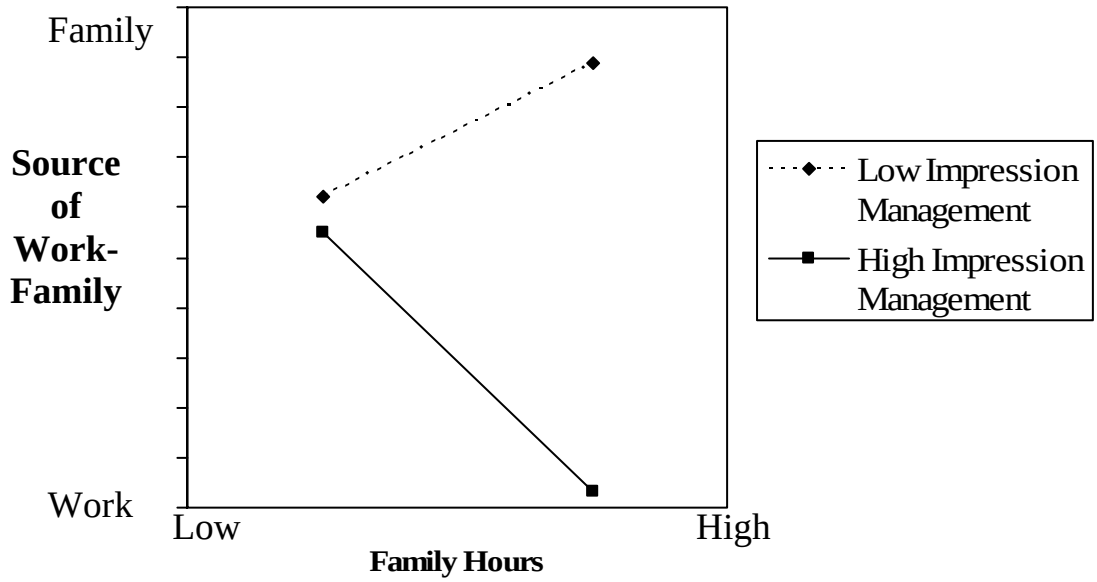

Figure 8

Interaction between family hours and impression management when predicting source of work-family conflict.

Contrary to expectation, the interaction between time demands and impression management were not significant for work-to-family conflict scale. The results for these analyses are depicted in Appendix B (Tables 38 to 41).

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

It is well established that conflict between the work and family domains can be affected by either work or home environment demands (e.g., Frone et al., 1992; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The current study went beyond the measurement of the perceived direction of work-to-family conflict and attempted to explain the conditions under which an individual perceives either work or family as the primary source of conflict.

The findings support the supposition that time demands play a pivotal role in perceptions of work-family conflict directionality. This is in agreement with the conservation of resource theory which states that individuals have only a limited number of resources such as energy or time (Hobfoll, 1989). When one's resources are depleted in one domain, the individual may try to tap into resources from another domain to maintain his or her desired level of performance. Such resource management actions may then lead to conflict. I argued that time demands by themselves do not fully explain perceptions of the primary source of work-family conflict, and there are other variables that play a part in the domain blaming process: role salience, social support, gender roles, and societal roles.

Role Salience

I predicted that individuals with high levels of role salience in one role (e.g., work) would be more likely to report the other role (e.g., family) as the primary source of conflict, because individuals who value one role are likely to perceive the other role more as the interference. Contrary to expectations, results showed that individuals who

reported high levels of work role salience were more likely to identify that the work domain was the primary source of conflict. I offer several reasons for these unexpected findings. First, it could be that since role salience indicates the importance individuals attach to a role (Amatea et al., 1986), individuals may believe that the role they identify with is important enough to conflict with other roles. In fact, they may not appraise the conflict as a negative aspect of their work-family interface, rather they perceive it as inevitable.

Second, the conservation of resource theory model stresses that valued resources are the most critical type of resource (Hobfoll, 1986). Although role salience describes how attached one is to their job or family, it does not necessarily mean that the individual values the role. While attachment might be related to values, attachment might also be a function of motivating factors such as need (e.g., need to provide for family). Therefore, role salience may only partially capture the extent to which an individual values a given role which may be a better predictor of the source of conflict.

Finally, as depicted in the correlation matrix (Table 1), family role salience was negatively related to hours spent in the work domain. These findings reflect Frone and Rice's (1987) contention that individuals are more likely to spend excessive time in their primary role, thus leaving less time to maintain their responsibilities in their secondary role. It may be that individuals high in family role salience choose to spend less time at work and therefore do not see work as a primary source of conflict.

Social Support

Social support was assessed as both a family-related variable (family support) and as an organization-related variable (supervisor support). I predicted that individuals who received support from one domain (e.g., work) would be more likely to interpret the conflict to originate in the other domain (e.g., home). According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), when individuals receive something (e.g., support) from someone in return, they feel like they need to reciprocate the favor by doing something for that person. In the case of work and family, individuals may emotionally side with the supportive domain and perceive the other domain as the primary source of the conflict. Results revealed that when support was examined in only one domain (i.e., only family support or only supervisor support), the interaction between support and time demands was not significant for any of the conflict measures. When both family and supervisor support were tested together along with work hours (but not family hours), three three-way interactions emerged. However, each interaction offers a different, yet related, conclusion.

First, results suggest that regardless of work hours, individuals who had high levels of supervisor and family support were more likely to report high levels of family-to-work conflict compared to individuals with low levels of supervisor and family support. Second, results showed that individuals who reported a low number of work hours and high levels of supervisor and family support, tended to report low levels of work-to-family conflict. Conversely, individuals who reported high work hours and reported high supervisor and family support also reported high levels of work-to-family

conflict. This pattern was similar to the pattern revealed in the previous analysis with family-to-work conflict; that is, the more support provided in a given domain, the stronger the perception of conflict. In both cases, these findings are counterintuitive and are in direct opposition of the hypotheses and previous findings (e.g., Adams, 1996; Burke, 1988; Frone et al., 1997). It may be that individuals who experience higher levels of conflict solicit assistance from work and home which increases levels of family and supervisor support. Unfortunately since this study was cross-sectional in nature, it cannot be ascertained which came first, conflict or the support provided by the family or the supervisor.

Third, results suggest that during times of high work hours, regardless of supervisor support, individuals with low levels of family support were more likely to attribute the primary source of conflict to the family domain and those with high family support were more likely to attribute the primary source of conflict to the work domain. Under low work hours, individuals who reported high family support and low supervisor support were more likely to identify work as the primary source of conflict than individuals who reported high family and supervisor support. Conversely, individuals who reported high levels of supervisor support and low family support were more likely to report that work was the primary source of conflict compared to those who reported low family support and low supervisor support. Thus, under conditions of high work hours, the supposition that individuals who experience support from one domain report the primary source of conflict from the other domain is confirmed. Whereas comparing the amount of support and the source of conflict of each domain not been tested in

previous studies, its pattern is consistent with the idea that support in one domain leads to lower levels of conflict (Adams et al., 1996) thus perceiving the primary source of conflict in the other domain.

Finally, these results suggest that individuals perceive the primary source of conflict differently depending on the number of work hours and both supervisor and family support. That is, under high work hours, individuals perceive the primary source of conflict to originate in the work domain. This attribution of conflict to work effect seems to be even stronger if the individual also reported receiving a higher level of family support.

Overall, results from these three-way interaction analyses lead to three conclusions. First, an individual's perception of the primary source of work-family conflict is dependent on the hours they work at their job. Second, support (*either* family or supervisor) is negatively related to work-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. That is, having either type of support will lessen the level of both types of conflict. Finally, under a high number of work hours, family support buffers the effects of conflict such that individuals attribute the primary source of conflict to the work domain. This suggests that family support may be a better predictor of source of conflict predictions than supervisor support.

Gender Roles

I expected that men who reported high time demands and held traditional gender roles (i.e., high on masculinity or low on femininity) would be more likely to perceive that family interferes with work than work interferes with family. This prediction was

based on the supposition that society holds different expectations for masculine individuals than feminine individuals such that those in the masculine role should make work their primary role and family their second role. If masculine individuals experience work-family conflict, they are likely to perceive the conflict originated in the less important role (i.e., family role). Contrary to expectation, results showed that individuals who were high in masculinity and reported working a high number of hours on the job were more likely to report that the source of their conflict was the work domain. In contrast, individuals who reported a low level of masculinity and work hours were more likely to report the source of the conflict was the family domain.

This prediction was not supported and may be partially explained by one's identity and involvement within a particular role. Specifically, it could be that individuals with higher masculine scores spend more time in the traditional male domain (work) which in turn is the source of more stress in their life. Similar results and inferences have been reported by researchers (e.g., Pleck, 1977) when examining biological sex and work-family conflict.

Another potential explanation for these unexpected findings is the relevance of the gender role scale to this sample. The employees in this sample worked in male-dominated occupations that are also considered 'helping professions' (i.e., police station employees and fire department employees). Some sample items from the gender role scale are: "able to devote self completely to others" and "very helpful to others." Reporting that these statements are more true than their opposites ("not at all able to devote self completely to others" and "not at all helpful to others") results in higher

femininity scores, but these characteristics are also descriptive of effective police station and fire department employees. The jobs may be seen as masculine and high risk, but success within these specific occupations is based on service to others and devotion to society. Although these results were contrary to expectation, they do give further credence to the importance of gender roles and how an employee identifies with a role. This is important because gender roles have been largely ignored or overlooked in past work-family research (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002).

Society Roles

I predicted that individuals who experienced high time demands and practice a high level of IM tactics are more likely to perceive work interferes with family than individuals who employ fewer IM tactics. This prediction was based on the supposition that it is more acceptable in society for work to interfere with family suggesting that family is the primary role. Contrary to expectations, results showed that individuals who reported high work hours and high IM tactics were more likely to report that the primary source of their conflict was the family domain. Those who reported high work hours and low IM tactics reported the work domain as the primary source of conflict. The findings also indicated that individuals who reported a high number of hours in family activities and high IM tactics were more likely to report that the primary source of conflict was the work domain. Conversely, individuals who reported high family hours and low IM tactics reported the primary source of conflict as the family domain.

Both of these findings are contrary to expectation. Individuals who tended to engage in IM tactics attributed the primary source of conflict to the domain they did *not*

report as the one they reported spending more time in. This was not the case for the individuals who scored low on IM tactics; their primary source of conflict was the domain that they reported working the most hours in. Specifically, when they reported high work hours they identified the work as the primary source of conflict and when they reported high family hours they identified family as the primary source of conflict. There are several possible explanations for these unexpected findings. First, it may be that individuals who engage in IM tactics were overcompensating their responses such that if they reported long hours in one of the domains, they made an effort to report that that domain was not causing stress in their life. Second, the items in the measure may not have been appropriate for this sample given their occupations. For example, the impression management scale includes items such as, "I always obey laws, even if I'm unlikely to get caught." Fire department employees and police station employees may be more likely to agree with these items because it is the truth rather than a socially desirable response. This would mean their impression management scores may have been slightly inflated.

Overall, the data did not strongly support the contention that role salience, gender roles, and societal expectations play a crucial role in determining how one perceives the direction of conflict. I examined the descriptive statistics for the data to further understand the lack of support for my hypotheses. There were some interesting descriptive statistics worth noting. First, I should note that the following comparisons should be interpreted with caution because the scales may be measuring different constructs. First, consistent with previous findings (c.f., Frone, 2003), respondents

reported higher levels of work-to-family conflict (M = 3.00, SD = 0.90) than family-to-work conflict (M = 2.23, SD = 0.67). Additionally, when individuals were asked to indicate how much each domain is responsible for feelings of stress, the respondents attributed slightly more responsibility to the work domain (42.7% of the conflict was attributed to the family) in the source of conflict scale. Thus both of these pieces of information suggest that for this sample, work is the primary source of work-family conflict.

Implications

Theoretical

The results of the current study showed complex relationships between work hours, the constructs of interest (i.e., role salience, support, gender roles, and impression management) and work-family conflict. Two of the constructs, gender role and impression management, are rarely examined in work-family conflict research. Findings from the current study suggest that these two variables are related to work-family conflict and underscore the need for further research on these constructs (e.g., Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). The current study offers some indication that gender roles are related to how individuals perceive the source of conflict with femininity positively related to the perceptions that family is the primary source of conflict. It should also be noted that similar to biological sex, gender roles were not related to either work-to-family or family-to-work conflict.

Current work-family conflict scales (e.g., Netemeyer et al., 1996) may be useful in measuring level of conflict but not source of conflict. For example, one of the items

from Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) work-to-family conflict scale states, "The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities" and one item from the family-to-work scale states, "I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home." A person whose job requires an 80-hr work week and has a lot of responsibilities at home may choose "strongly agree" for both items, because the job makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities and they do have to put things off at work because of home responsibilities. In other words, the two subscales do not differentiate whether the work domain, the family domain, or both domains are the primary source of conflict. Work-family conflict literatures have recently stressed the need to examine the directionality of work-family conflict because each type of role conflict yields different antecedents and consequences (Frone et al., 1997; Gutek et al., 1991). The tools that have been used to distinguish the two directions of role conflict are the bi-directional work-family conflict measures (e.g., Netemeyer et al., 1996) which may not be the best tools to ascertain directionality.

Additionally, individuals may describe the conflict differently depending on whether they are responding to two independent measures (e.g., Netemeyer et al., 1996) or a measure that pits the two domains against each other (source of work-family conflict; current study). These measures may be assessing two different but related processes as the results varied between these two measures. First, the source of work-family conflict scale does not provide information concerning the level of conflict in each domain. Theoretically, respondents could report that conflict is distributed equally in the work and family domains. For the Netemeyer et al. (1996) measure, that would be

shown through equal scores on each scale. For the source of conflict scale, that would be shown by a score of 50% for each domain. The Netemeyer et al. measure generates mean scores that indicate low to high levels of conflict in each domain. Second, the Netemeyer et al. measure does not provide information concerning how much of the conflict originates in each domain. Whereas the subscales can offer some information concerning which domain the respondent perceives the conflict to originate, the Netemeyer et al. (1996) measure only offers information relative to its two scales (i.e., work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict). For example, a respondent may receive a score of 4.5 on the work-to-family conflict scale and a 3.9 on the family-to-work conflict scale. From this information, one could "assume" that they perceive that work is the source of the conflict because the score is higher, but this may not be the case. It could be that they have a lot of responsibilities at home and cannot complete them regardless of a 40 hour a week job or an 80 hour a week job.

Applied

Understanding why employees attribute role conflict to a specific domain can benefit the individual and organization alike. Past work-family research (e.g., Allen, 2001) has shown that organizations can foster family-friendly environments to lessen employee work-family conflict. Yet if the organization does not know in which domain the source originates for the employee, it is difficult to alleviate the source of conflict. Additionally, if the organization knew the conditions under which the employee perceived their job (or family) as the primary source of conflict, management could develop strategies to decrease the likelihood that the employee perceives the

organization as the primary source of conflict. For example, an employee may tell his supervisor that work is interfering with his family life, and he is thinking about leaving the organization. If the supervisor is aware that his/her support influences perceptions of conflict, then he/she could try to be more supportive which may reduce the extent to which the employee perceives work is the origin of the conflict.

Most of the proposed variables in the study cannot be easily modified by a supervisor. Role salience, gender role, and impression management are more stable in nature and not easily changed by others. Yet, understanding the role these variables play in perceptions of the source of conflict can aid the individuals and the organization alike. For example, an employee who normally works long hours and has a strong work role identity may perceive work to be the primary source of work-family conflict. The employee's manager may be able to forestall such a perception by decreasing the hours an employee works or providing them with compensation time. Knowing that this combination leads to a higher likelihood that the employee will perceive work as the primary source of conflict, the manager might try to decrease his/her work hours to lessen the chances that the employee will attribute the conflict to the work domain.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

There were several limitations to the study. First, the data were based on self-report measures that can be influenced by a tendency to respond in a socially desirable manner. However, the influence of IM tactics on the reporting of work-family conflict was of primary interest in this study, so such tendencies were also assessed. The data revealed no relationships between IM tactics and any of the work-family conflict

measures (r = .02 to -.07) suggesting that these constructs were not overly influenced by social desirability. However, IM tactics were significantly related to the supervisor support measure (r = .28) and femininity gender role scale (r = .23) suggesting IM tactics are related to constructs related to work-family conflict measures.

Second, two of the scales (i.e., work salience, the masculine subscale of Personal Attribute Questionnaire) had relatively low reliability coefficients. This can be especially problematic when using interaction terms within moderated regression, because the low reliability will attenuate any potential relationships. Yet it should also be noted that even with the weak reliability a significant interaction was found with the masculinity scale.

Third, the source of work-family conflict scale was created for this study and did not undergo rigorous methodological validation procedures. The scale does show some promise as it was related to the work-to-family conflict scale in the expected direction. Work-family researchers have stressed the need for more research on work-family conflict measures (e.g., Allen, Herst, Bruck & Sutton, 2000; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Although the scale showed promise in the current study, further methodological work needs to be conducted on the measure. Unfortunately, the sample size of the current study was too small to sufficiently examine the scale's potential.

Fourth, common method bias may be a concern since the study employed a cross-sectional design with all the variables coming from one single source (i.e., the survey). It should be noted that the choice to use just one source was based on the nature of the research question. The purpose of the study was to understand the conditions under which individuals perceive the source of conflict the way they do. Whereas data

from some other source (e.g., family member) might have eliminated the common method bias, it may not have been an accurate portrayal of the employee's perceptions.

Fifth, the sample was composed of only male and primarily Caucasian participants in traditionally masculine, high stress occupations. The results may be unique to this population and may not be generalizable to other populations. Fire department and police station employees' jobs have low levels of predictability and high levels of stress. They are also shift workers making them particularly prone to work and family spillover. For example, most of the fire department employees worked three-day shifts in which they were stationed at the fire house away from their family three full days at a time. This work period is followed by three days vacation in which they are away from their job and most likely interacting with their families. Similarly, most of the police station employees worked 12-hr shifts also resulting in long hours in their work domain and then long hours in their family domains. These long shifts in each domain may have biased how the participant perceived the source of conflict. For example, a fire department employee that was just coming off his three-day shift may have felt that the primary source of conflict occurred within the work domain whereas a fire department employee who was just beginning his shift and had spent the last three days at home may have felt that the primary source of conflict was the family domain. Future research with shift workers should examine these contextual factors.

It might also be helpful to contrast shift workers with more traditional workers who have more standard schedules. This group might experience work-family conflict differently than shift workers, because they interact in both domains every day

(excluding weekends). They may be less biased when identifying the source of conflict, because they experience both domains more regularly, which may allow for a clearer distinction of the source of conflict.

Finally, the all male sample did not allow an examination of women's perceptions regarding the variables related to the directionality of work-family conflict, and the findings in this study may not be generalizable to females. On the other hand, an all-male sample was advantageous, because it permitted an examination of gender role in the context of biological sex.

Understanding when an employee perceives the primary source of conflict to originate in the home or at work is complex. A comprehensive research design to include both qualitative and quantitative methodologies may be beneficial in trying to understand the complex phenomena of perceived conflict. For example, integrating work-family conflict scales with interview questions that ask about the source of the conflict would help further clarify the complexities found in quantitative survey data.

In conclusion, the goal of this research was to go beyond a simplistic bi-directional model of work-family conflict in an attempt to understand perceptions of the source of conflict and develop a better understanding of when individuals perceive the source of work-family conflict the way they do. Although the results failed to support the original hypotheses, they did reveal some interesting relationships and provide guidance for future work-family research.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY QUESTIONS

1. Are you married?

    0 no

    1 yes

2. If you are not married, do you have a significant other?

    0 no

    1 yes

    2 not applicable

3. How many years have you been married to or been with a significant other?
4. How many children do you have living at home?
5. What is the age of your youngest child? (if applicable)
6. Who do you currently live with at home? (check all that apply)

    0 Live by myself

    1 Spouse

    2 Significant Other (SO)

    3 Spouse/SO and children

    4 Children only

    5 Dependent parents

7. What is your age?
8. Race

1 African-American/ Black

2 Asian

3 Hispanic

4 White

5 Other

9. Sex

0 Male

1 Female

10. Education Level

0 Less than high school degree

1 High school degree

2 Some college education or community college

3 College degree and/or postgraduate education

8. Is your job full-time or part-time?

0 Part-time

1 Full-time

9. How long have you had your present position at this company (in years)?

10. What is your job title?

Time Demands

Time Spent in Work Activities

In the past week, approximately how many hours did you spend in the following activities per day?

___ working at the office

___ working at home (job-related)

___ home chores and errands

___ activities with your family (children or Spouse/Significant Other)

___ self-related activities (i.e., recreation alone)

___ caring for aging parent(s)

Role Salience

Family Role Salience

Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby (1986)

Response Choices: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. My life would seem empty if I never had a family.
2. A happy family life is the most important thing to me.
3. I expect my family to give me more real life satisfaction than anything else in life.
4. I expect the major satisfactions in my life to come from my family relationships.
5. Although having a family requires sacrifices, the satisfaction it brings far outweighs the sacrifices.

Work Role Salience

Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby (1986)

Response Choices: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. Having work that is interesting and exciting to me is my most important life goal.
2. I expect my job to give me more real satisfaction than anything else I do.
3. Building a name and reputation for myself through work is not one of my goals.
4. It is important to me that I have a job in which I can achieve something of importance.
5. It is important to me to feel successful in my work.

Social Support

Perceived Supervisory Support

(Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986)

Response Choices: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. My supervisor cares about my opinions. (PSS1)
2. My supervisor really cares about my well-being. (PSS2)
3. My supervisor strongly considers my goals and values. (PSS3)
4. Help is available from my supervisor when I have a problem. (PSS4)
5. My supervisor would forgive an honest mistake on my part. (PSS5)
6. If given the opportunity, my supervisor would take advantage of me. (PSS6) R
7. My supervisor shows very little concern for me. (PSS7) R
8. My supervisor is willing to help me when I need a special favor. (PSS8)

Family Support

Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayan, & Schwartz (2002)

Response Choices: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

1. When something goes wrong at work, I can talk it over with my family.
2. My family care about how I feel about my job.
3. My family help me feel better when I've had a hard day at work.
4. My family are interested and proud when something good happens at work.

Gender Roles

Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ)

(Spence & Helmreich, 1978)

The items below inquire about what kind of person you think you are. Each item consists of a pair of characteristics, with the letters A-E between.

For example:

Not at all Artistic A…..B…..C…..D…..E Very Artistic

Each pair describes contradictory characteristics – that is, you cannot be both at the same time, such as very artistic and not at all artistic.

The letters form a scale between the two extremes. You are to choose a letter which describes where you fall on the scale. For example, if you think you have no artistic ability, you would choose A. If you think you are pretty good, you might choose d. If you are only medium, you might choose C, and so forth.

1.	Not at all independent	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Very independent
2.	Not at all emotional	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Very emotional
3.	Very passive	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Very active
4.	Not at all able to devote self completely to others	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Able to devote self completely to others
5.	Very rough	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Very gentle
6.	Not at all helpful to others	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Very helpful to others

7. Not at all competitive	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Very competitive
8. Not at all kind	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Very kind
9. Not at all aware of feelings of others	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Very aware of others feelings
10. Gives up very easily	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Never gives up easily
11. Not at all self-confident	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Very self-confident
12. Not at all self-confident	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Very self-confident
13. Feels very inferior	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Feels superior
14. Not at all understanding of others	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Very understanding of others
15. Very cold in relations with others	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Very warm in relations with others
16. Goes to pieces under pressure	A…..B…..C…..D…..E	Stands up well under pressure

Scoring the PAQ. Items are scored in the following manner: A = 0, B = 1, C = 2, D = 3, E = 4. Based on the responses you circled, enter the appropriate numbers for the remaining items in the spaces to the left of the items.

The next step is to compute your scores on the femininity and masculinity subscales of the PAQ.

To compute your score on the femininity subscale of the PAQ, add up the numbers next

to items

3, 7, 8, 9, 12, 15, 21, and 22, and enter your score in the space below. To compute your scores

on the masculinity subscale of the PAQ, add up the numbers next to items 2, 6, 10, 16, 17, 19, 20, and 24, and enter your score in the space below.

Interpreting score. You can use the chart shown below to classify yourself in terms of gender-role identity. The cutoffs for “high” scores on the masculinity and femininity subscales are the medians for each scale. If scores are within a couple of points of the median, you should view your gender-role classification as very tentative.

Social Norm Responses

Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR-6; Paulhus, 1984, 1991).

Response Items: 1 = not true to 5 = very true

Impression Management

1. I never cover up my mistakes.
2. There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone.
3. I always obey laws, even if I'm unlikely to get caught.
4. I have said something bad about a friend behind his or her back.
5. When I hear people talking privately, I avoid listening.
6. I have received too much change from a salesperson without telling him or her.
7. When I was young I sometimes stole things.
8. I have never dropped litter in the street.
9. I never read sexy books or magazines.
10. I have done things that I don't tell other people about.
11. I have taken sick leave from work or school even though I wasn't really sick.
12. I don't gossip about other people's business.

Scoring:

Scores for each subscale are summed to create two scores; one for self-deception and one for impression management.

Work-Family Conflict

Work-Family Conflict

Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian (1996**)**

The statements below ask about how you feel about your work and nonwork roles. Read each statement and mark the box reflecting your agreement or disagreement with the statement. If you are an unemployed or employed in your job for less than three months, base your responses on your experience with your last employer. Otherwise, base your responses on your experience in your current job.

Response Items: Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5)

Family Interfering with Work

1. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.
2. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.
3. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.
4. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.
5. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.

Work Interfering with Family

1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.

3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.
4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.
5. Due to work-related duties, I have to makes changes to my plans for family activities.

Work-Family Conflict Directionality

Made for Study

Read each statement carefully. Think about how you have felt in the past month and what has been contributing to these feelings.

- Mark either "yes" or "no" to indicate whether you have experienced one of the statements.
- If you answered "no" - continue on to next item.
- If you answered "yes" - assign a percentage to family and work indicating how much family and work is responsible for each statement. *The 2 percentages should add up to 100% for each row.*

Example

Yes	No	Statements	Family	Work
☒ X	☐	I am busy.	*25* %	*75* %
☒ X	☐	I find it difficult to complete all the tasks I should.	*55* %	*45* %

Have you felt any of the following in the past month?			If you answered "yes", assign percentage to family & work indicating how much each domain is responsible for each statement:	
Yes	No	Statements	Family	Work
☐	☐	I am busy.	_____%	_____%
☐	☐	I find it difficult to complete all the tasks I should.	_____%	_____%
☐	☐	I am tired.	_____%	_____%
☐	☐	I am stressed.	_____%	_____%
☐	☐	I do not have time to complete more than just basic tasks.	_____%	_____%
☐	☐	I find it difficult to juggle all of my responsibilities.	_____%	_____%
☐	☐	I feel overwhelmed at the end of the day.	_____%	_____%
☐	☐	I feel weighed down by all my responsibilities.	_____%	_____%
☐	☐	I have too much to do.	_____%	_____%
☐	☐	I find it difficult to concentrate on daily tasks.	_____%	_____%

APPENDIX B

ADDITIONAL ANALYSES

Table 10

Interaction between work hours and work salience on family-to-work conflict (Hypothesis 1a)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.02	.02	.27	.03	.03
Age	-.01	.02	-.08		
Age of youngest child	-.02	.02	-.15		
2. Work Hours	.00	.00	.03	.03	.00
Work Salience	.05	.15	.04		
3. Work Salience X Work Hours	.01	.01	.12	.04	.01

Note. N = 100. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

Table 11

Interaction between family hours and work salience on family-to-work conflict (Hypothesis 1a)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.02	.02	.28	.03	.01
Age	-.01	.02	-.09		
Age of youngest child	-.02	.02	-.15		
2. Family Hours	.00	.00	.05	.03	.00
Work Salience	.06	.15	.04		
3. Work Salience X Family Hours	-.01	.01	-.11	.04	.01

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

Table 12

Interaction between family hours and work salience on source of work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 1a)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.21	.46	.10	.01	.01
Age	.01	.58	.00		
Age of youngest child	-.11	.46	-.05		
2. Family Hours	.24*	.10	.28	.10	.09*
Work Salience	-3.26	3.66	-.10		
3. Work Salience X Family Hours	.31	.21	.17	.13	.03

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

* $p < .05$.

Table 13

Interaction between work hours and family salience on work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 1b)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.01	.03	.05	.07	.07
Age	.01	.03	.10		
Age of youngest child	-.05*	.03	-.36		
2. Work Hours	.01*	.01	.24	.12	.00
Family Salience	.01	.18	.00		
3. Family Salience X Work Hours	-.00	.01	-.03	.12	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

* $p < .05$.

Table 14

Interaction between work hours and family salience on source of work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 1b)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.30	.46	.14	.01	.01
Age	-.12	.59	-.05		
Age of youngest child	-.05	.47	-.02		
2. Work Hours	.03	.09	.04	.01	.00
Family Salience	.03	3.59	.00		
3. Family Salience X Work Hours	.12	.14	.10	.02	.01

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

Table 15

Interaction between family hours and family salience on source of work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 1b)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.01	.03	.06	.06	.06
Age	.01	.03	.10		
Age of youngest child	-.01	.03	-.36		
2. Family Hours	-.01	.01	-.19	.10	.04
Family Salience	-.05	.18	-.03		
3. Family Salience X Family Hours	.01	.01	.10	.11	.01

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

Table 16

Interaction between family hours and family salience on source of work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 1b)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.21	.46	.10	.01	.01
Age	.01	.58	.00		
Age of youngest child	-.11	.46	-.05		
2. Family Hours	.26*	.10	.29	.09	.08*
Family Salience	-1.56	3.32	-.06		
3. Family Salience X Family Hours	-.10	.17	-.07	.09	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

* $p < .05$.

Table 17

Interaction between work hours and supervisor support on work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 2a)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.02	.02	.27	.03	.03
Age	-.01	.02	-.08		
Age of youngest child	-.02	.02	-.15		
2. Work Hours	.00	.00	.01	.04	.01
Supervisor Support (SS)	-.14	.12	-.13		
3. SS X Work Hours	.00	.00	.02	.04	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model. SS = Supervisor Support.

Table 18

Interaction between work hours and supervisor support on source of work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 2a)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.30	.46	.14	.01	.01
Age	-.12	.59	-.05		
Age of youngest child	-.05	.47	-.02		
2. Work Hours	.04	.09	.05	.01	.00
Supervisor Support (SS)	1.81	3.17	.07		
3. SS X Work Hours	.04	.10	.04	.02	.01

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model. SS = Supervisor Support.

Table 19

Interaction between family hours and supervisor support on family-to-work conflict (Hypothesis 2a)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.02	.02	.28	.03	.03
Age	-.01	.02	-.09		
Age of youngest child	-.02	.02	-.15		
2. Family Hours	.00	.00	.07	.05	.02
Supervisor Support (SS)	-.15	.12	-.14		
3. SS X Family Hours	.00	.01	.08	.05	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model. SS = Supervisor Support.

Table 20

Interaction between family hours and supervisor support on source of work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 2a)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.21	.46	.10	.01	.01
Age	.01	.58	.00		
Age of youngest child	-.11	.46	-.05		
2. Family Hours	.25*	.10	.29	.09	.08*
Supervisor Support (SS)	.65	2.96	.03		
3. SS X Family Hours	-.08	.15	-.06	.09	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model. SS = Supervisor Support.

* $p < .05$.

Table 21

Interaction between work hours and family support on work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 2b)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.01	.03	.05	.07	.07
Age	.01	.03	.10		
Age of youngest child	-.05	.03	-.36		
2. Work Hours	.01*	.00	.21	.16	.09*
Family Support (FS)	-.29	.17	-.19		
3. FS X Work Hours	.00	.01	.01	.16	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model. FS =Family Support.

* $p < .05$

Table 22

Interaction between work hours and family support on source of work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 2b)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.30	.46	.14	.01	.01
Age	-.12	.59	-.05		
Age of youngest child	-.05	.47	-.02		
2. Work Hours	.06	.08	.08	.07	.06
Family Support (FS)	7.19	3.18	.26		
3. FS X Work Hours	.05	.14	.04	.08	.02

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model. FS =Family Support.

Table 23

Interaction between family hours and family support on work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 2b)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.01	.03	.06	.06	.06
Age	.01	.03	.10		
Age of youngest child	-.01	.03	-.36		
2. Family Hours	-.01	.01	-.15	.13	.08
Family Support (FS)	-.29	.17	-.19		
3. FS X Family Hours	.01	.01	.07	.14	.01

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model. FS =Family Support.

Table 24

Interaction between family hours and family support on source of work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 2b)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.21	.46	.10	.01	.01
Age	.01	.58	.00		
Age of youngest child	-.11	.46	-.05		
2. Family Hours	.21*	.10	.24	.12	.11*
Family Support (FS)	5.30	3.09	.20		
3. FS X Family Hours	-.05	.17	-.04	.12	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model. FS =Family Support.

* $p < .05$.

Table 25

Interaction between family hours, family support and supervisor support on family-to-work conflict (Hypothesis 2c)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.02	.02	.29	.03	.03
Age	-.01	.02	-.09		
Age of youngest child	-.01	.02	-.15		
2. Family Hours	.00	.00	.07	.05	.02
Family Support	-.03	.14	-.02		
Supervisor Support	-.14	.13	-.13		
3. FS X Family Hours	-.00	.01	-.06	.06	.01
SS X Family Hours	.01	.01	.10		
4. SS X FS X Family Hours	.00	.01	.01	.06	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model. FS = Family Support. SS = Supervisor Support.

Table 26

Interaction between family hours, family support and supervisor support on work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 2c)

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Organizational tenure	.01	.03	.06	.06	.06
	Age	.01	.03	.10		
	Age of youngest child	-.05	.03	-.36		
2.	Family Hours	-.01	.01	-.15	.13	.05
	Family Support	-.28	.18	-.18		
	Supervisor Support	-.03	.16	-.02		
3.	FS X Family Hours	.00	.01	.04	.15	.02
	SS X Family Hours	.01	.01	.10		
4.	SS X FS X Family Hours	.00	.01	.02	.15	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model. FS = Family Support. SS = Supervisor Support.

Table 27

Interaction between family hours, family support and supervisor support on source of work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 2c)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.21	.46	.10	.01	.01
Age	.01	.58	.00		
Age of youngest child	-.11	.46	-.05		
2. Family Hours	.21*	.10	.24	.12	.11*
Family Support	5.56	3.24	.21		
Supervisor Support	-.84	3.05	-.03		
3. FS X Family Hours	-.03	.18	-.02	.13	.02
SS X Family Hours	-.07	.16	-.05		
4. SS X FS X Family Hours	.10	.25	-.06	.13	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model. FS = Family Support. SS = Supervisor Support.

* $p < .05$.

Table 28

Interaction between work hours and masculinity on family-to-work conflict (Hypothesis 3)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.02	.02	.27	.03	.03
Age	-.01	.02	-.08		
Age of youngest child	-.02	.02	-.15		
2. Work Hours	.00	.00	.03	.03	.00
Masculinity	-.01	.02	-.03		
3. Masculinity X Work Hours	.00	.00	.01	.03	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

Table 29

Interaction between family hours and masculinity on family-to-work conflict (Hypothesis 3)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.02	.02	.28	.03	.03
Age	-.01	.02	-.09		
Age of youngest child	-.02	.02	-.15		
2. Family Hours	.00	.00	.06	.03	.00
Masculinity	-.01	.02	-.04		
3. Masculinity X Family Hours	-.00	.00	-.02	.03	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

Table 30

Interaction between family hours and masculinity on work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 3)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.01	.03	.06	.06	.06
Age	.01	.03	.10		
Age of youngest child	-.05	.03	-.36		
2. Family Hours	-.01	.01	-.20	.10	.04
Masculinity	.01	.03	.02		
3. Masculinity X Family Hours	.00	.00	.01	.10	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

Table 31

Interaction between family hours and masculinity on work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 3)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.21	.46	.10	.01	.01
Age	.01	.58	.00		
Age of youngest child	-.11	.46	-.05		
2. Family Hours	.26*	.10	.29	.09	.08*
Masculinity	-.27	.58	-.05		
3. Masculinity X Family Hours	-.03	.04	-.08	.10	.01

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

* $p < .05$.

Table 32

Interaction between work hours and femininity on family-to-work conflict (Hypothesis 3)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.02	.02	.27	.03	.03
Age	-.01	.02	-.08		
Age of youngest child	-.02	.02	-.15		
2. Work Hours	.00	.00	.03	.03	.00
Femininity	.00	.02	.01		
3. Femininity X Work Hours	.00	.00	.15	.05	.02

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

Table 33

Interaction between work hours and femininity on work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 3)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.01	.03	.05	.07	.07
Age	.01	.03	.10		
Age of youngest child	-.05*	.03	-.36		
2. Work Hours	.01*	.00	.24	.15	.08*
Femininity	-.04	.03	-.18		
3. Femininity X Work Hours	.00	.00	.12	.16	.01

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

* $p < .05$.

Table 34

Interaction between work hours and femininity on source of work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 3)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.30	.46	.14	.01	.01
Age	-.12	.59	-.05		
Age of youngest child	-.05	.47	-.02		
2. Work Hours	.03	.08	.04	.08	.07
Femininity	1.27	.52	.28		
3. Femininity X Work Hours	-.01	.02	-.08	.09	.02

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

Table 35

Interaction between family hours and femininity on family-to-work conflict (Hypothesis 3)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.02	.02	.28	.03	.03
Age	-.01	.02	-.09		
Age of youngest child	-.02	.02	-.15		
2. Family Hours	.00	.00	.05	.03	.00
Femininity	.00*	.02	.00		
3. Femininity X Family Hours	-.00	.00	-.12	.04	.01

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

Table 36

Interaction between family hours and femininity on work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 3)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.01	.03	.06	.06	.06
Age	.01	.03	.10		
Age of youngest child	-.05	.03	-.36		
2. Family Hours	-.01	.01	-.17	.12	.06
Femininity	-.04	.03	-.14		
3. Femininity X Family Hours	.00	.00	.04	.12	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

Table 37

Interaction between family hours and femininity on source of work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 3)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.21	.46	.10	.01	.01
Age	.00	.58	.00		
Age of youngest child	-.11	.46	-.05		
2. Family Hours	.22*	.10	.25	.14	.13**
Femininity	1.03*	.51	.23		
3. Femininity X Family Hours	-.02	.02	-.12	.15	.01

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

Table 38

Interaction between work hours and impression management on family-to-work conflict (Hypothesis 4)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.02	.02	.27	.03	.03
Age	-.01	.02	-.08		
Age of youngest child	-.02	.02	-.15		
2. Work Hours	.00	.00	.04	.04	.01
Impression Management	-.03	.03	-.12		
3. IM X Work Hours	.00	.00	.04	.04	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

IM = Impression Management.

Table 39

Interaction between work hours and impression management on work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 4)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.01	.03	.05	.07	.07
Age	.01	.03	.10		
Age of youngest child	-.05*	.03	-.36		
2. Work Hours	.01*	.00	.24	.13	.06
Impression Management	.03	.04	.08		
3. IM X Work Hours	.00	.00	.15	.15	.02

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

IM = Impression Management

* $p < .05$.

Table 40

Interaction between family hours and impression management on family-to-work conflict (Hypothesis 4)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.02	.02	.28	.03	.03
Age	-.01	.02	-.09		
Age of youngest child	-.01	.02	-.15		
2. Family Hours	.00	.00	.04	.04	.01
Impression Management	-.03	.03	-.12		
3. IM X Family Hours	.00	.00	.10	.05	.01

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

IM = Impression Management

Table 41

Interaction between family hours and impression management on work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 4)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Organizational tenure	.01	.03	.06	.06	.06
Age	.01	.03	.10		
Age of youngest child	-.05	.03	-.36		
2. Family Hours	-.01	.01	-.29	.11	.05
Impression Management	.03	.04	.08		
3. IM X Family Hours	.00	.00	.04	.11	.00

Note. $N = 100$. The *B* weights in the columns are from the step of entry into the model.

IM = Impression Management

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Education

Ph.D.	Texas A&M University Psychology Major, Industrial and Organizational emphasis	December 2004
M.Ed.	University of Maryland Counseling and Personnel Services	May 1997
B.S.	University of Maryland Psychology Major	January 1997
B.A.	San Diego State University Political Science Major, Economics Minor	May 1989

Selected Publications

Adler, A. B., Huffman, A. H., Castro, C. A., & Bliese, P. (in press). The impact of deployment length and deployment experience on the wellbeing of male and female military personnel. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology.*

Huffman, A. H., Adler, A. B., Castro, C. A., & Dolan, C. (in press). The impact of operations tempo on turnover intentions of army personnel. *Military Psychology.*

Payne, S. C., & Huffman, A. H. (in press). A longitudinal examination of the influence of mentoring on organizational commitment and turnover. *Academy of Management Journal.*

Huffman, A. H. & Payne, S. C. (in press). The Challenges and Benefits of Dual-Military Marriages. In C. A. Castro et al. (Eds.), *Studies in Military Psychology, Volume 3: The Military Family*. Westport, CT: Praeger Press.

Selected Awards

Grant Recipient for "Understanding Employee Work-Life Balance in a Diverse Workforce" ($400), Institutional Assessment and Diversity, TAMU (2004)
Texas A&M Liberal Arts Dissertation Award ($2,500)